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CONTINUING "THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER"

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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

Lessons in Community and National Life

Full announcement is made of a series of *Lessons in Community and National Life* in a circular issued by the Bureau of Education. The notable letters from President Wilson, Mr. Hoover, and Commissioner Claxton which appear on the first pages of this circular should receive the careful attention of every teacher and school officer. The circular in full is as follows:

THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

August 23, 1917

To School Officers:

The war is bringing to the minds of our people a new appreciation of the problems of national life and a deeper understanding of the meaning and aims of democracy. Matters which heretofore have seemed commonplace and trivial are seen in a truer light. The urgent demand for the production and proper distribution of food and other national resources has made us aware of the close dependence of individual on individual and nation on nation. The effort to keep up social and industrial organizations in spite of the withdrawal of men for the army has revealed the extent to which modern life has become complex and specialized.

These and other lessons of the war must be learned quickly if we are intelligently and successfully to defend our institutions. When the war is over we must apply the wisdom which we have acquired in purging and ennobling the life of the world.

In these vital tasks of acquiring a broader view of human possibilities the common school must have a large part. I urge that teachers and other school officers increase materially the time and attention devoted to instruction bearing directly on the problems of community and national life.

Such a plea is in no way foreign to the spirit of American public education or of existing practices. Nor is it a plea for a temporary enlargement of the school program appropriate merely to the period of the war. It is a plea for a realization in public education of the new emphasis which the war has given to the ideals of democracy and to the broader conceptions of national life.

In order that there may be definite material at hand with which the schools may at once expand their teaching I have asked Mr. Hoover and Commissioner Claxton to organize the proper agencies for the preparation and distribution of suitable lessons for the elementary grades and for the high-school classes. Lessons thus suggested will serve the double purpose of illustrating in a concrete way what can be undertaken in the schools and of stimulating teachers in all parts of the country to formulate new and appropriate materials drawn directly from the communities in which they live.

Sincerely yours,

WOODROW WILSON

UNITED STATES FOOD ADMINISTRATION
WASHINGTON

September 1, 1917

To the Superintendents and Principals
of the Schools of the United States:

In keeping with the plan outlined by the President, the United States Food Administration will cooperate with the Department of the Interior in issuing through the Bureau of Education a series of bulletins which will contain "Lessons in Community and National Life." These lessons will serve the very urgent immediate purpose of calling attention to the necessity of conserving food and all other resources of the Nation. They will serve at the same time the broader purpose of training pupils in the schools to recognize their rights and obligations in the cooperative society in which they live.

I urge all School Officers to promote with vigor this plan for the more definite and comprehensive teaching of democracy.

Faithfully yours,

HERBERT HOOVER

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION
WASHINGTON

September 6, 1917

To all State, County, and City Superintendents:

The movement now under way in many of the schools of the country to provide courses dealing with the problems of community life has been greatly

stimulated by the war. The plan suggested in the enclosed letter by the President has been in some measure anticipated by an urgent demand on the part of teachers for suitable material to introduce at this time into their classroom work. The Bureau of Education, cooperating with the United States Food Administration, has secured the services of a number of experienced teachers and writers and will furnish a body of material which it is hoped will supplement effectively the books and courses now at hand. A full description of the form in which the "Lessons in Community and National Life" will appear and be distributed accompanies this letter.

The purpose and form of these lessons are, as pointed out in President Wilson's letter, adapted not only to conditions which must obtain while the war continues, but as well to the conditions which will no doubt continue long after the war has ended; which indeed may not pass away for many decades, if ever.

Much of the material to which attention should be given in such courses is to be found in the environment of the school. The lessons provided will be most successful if they lead teachers and pupils to study the communities in which they live.

All school officers are urged to join in this plan, and by the use of the lessons and by encouraging the study of community problems near at hand, to aid in developing general instruction in the schools of the United States in the privileges and duties of life under our modern social organization.

Yours sincerely,

P. P. CLAXTON, *Commissioner*

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

LESSONS IN COMMUNITY AND NATIONAL LIFE

These lessons will be issued in the form of circulars of the Bureau of Education. The first will appear on October 1st, and others will follow on the 1st of each month up to and including May 1st.

The lessons will consist of reading material in form to be put directly into the hands of pupils. The text will in each case deal with selected topics, and will be followed by questions and suggestions as to topics which may be studied in addition to those presented in the text. Each lesson will be accompanied also by references to supplementary reading matter cognate to the text.

There will be three grades of lessons, one designed for pupils in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades; one for pupils in grades seven and eight and in the first year of the high school; one for students in the three upper years of the high school. There will be 32 pages of each grade of lessons each month.

The following suggestions are offered with regard to the introduction of these lessons into the program. They can properly be introduced as part of the work in reading classes and as subject-matter for discussion in English

classes. In this connection it may be noted that the subjects taken up will commonly be suitable for compositions. Second, the close correlation of the material with geography and history justifies the use in the grades of at least one hour a week drawn from the allotment made to those subjects. Third, where a course in civics or a course in current topics is now given in the school, the lessons will be available as part of the regular work. Fourth, it is suggested that an independent place on the program for a course of this type is amply justified even in the crowded curriculum now given.

The first circular will deal with types of social organization. About one-fourth of each of the sections of this circular will utilize the experience of the war to show how interdependent are the members of a modern social group. These "war lessons" will take up in the concrete such topics as the following: What the war has used up; what the war prevents men from producing; new needs which grow out of the war and are met by invention.

The section of the circular prepared for use in the upper classes of the high school will then present in a series of concrete descriptions the contrast between the life of a frontiersman and the life of a modern city.

The section for the seventh and eighth grades and the first year of the high school will describe the life of a colonial family as an example of a fairly independent economic unit. Following this will be a description of a modern factory and the community about it, and a description of a town produce market.

The section for the lower grades will deal with the things which society makes and uses. The specific topics in the first circular will be the making of cloth in a colonial family, the water system of a town, and the collection, refinement, and use of mineral oils.

The second circular will deal with production and conservation. The series as a whole will deal with the economic, sociological, and civic aspects of modern life.

An edition of 12,500 copies of the first circular will be published for distribution by the Bureau of Education. Subsequent circulars will be published in editions of 3,000 copies.

The Superintendent of Public Documents is prepared to supply reprints of each of the sections of 32 pages, when these are ordered in bulk. The sale price of these reprints is to be found on the order card. Small schools are asked to consolidate their orders through the county superintendent or through the State department of education. Orders can be made on the inclosed card. Money orders should accompany the order.

It is recommended that teachers secure for their own use each month the three sections. Those in the lower grades will find material in the sections designed for the upper grades which will give them the principles that they should incorporate into their teaching. In like manner the teachers in the upper grades will find illustrative material in the section prepared for the lower grades.

The arrangements provided make it possible to supply during the year to each pupil 256 pages of reading material at an aggregate cost of 8 cents, and to supply to a teacher 768 pages of material for 24 cents.

Washington as an Educational Center

The National Education Association has located its headquarters in Washington. The new secretary, Mr. J. W. Crabtree, announces the location of the new headquarters as 1400 Massachusetts Avenue NW.

The Vocational Education Board has appointed Mr. C. A. Prosser as its executive and has organized its offices in Washington and taken up the work of co-operating with various state boards.

The new Federal Child Labor law took effect on September 1. Hereafter no child under fourteen may be employed in any factory, mill, workshop, or cannery in the United States whose products are to be shipped in interstate commerce, and no child under sixteen in any mine or quarry. The working day of children fourteen and fifteen years of age in factories may not be longer than eight hours and they may not be employed between 7:00 P.M. and 6:00 A.M.

The enforcement of the law has been delegated by the Secretary of Labor to the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, and the head of the new child labor division of that Bureau is Miss Grace Abbott, formerly of Chicago, with headquarters in Washington.

These new educational agencies, added to the others which have their offices in Washington, will undoubtedly attract to the capital all the organizations which are in anyway connected with nation-wide projects of an educational character. It is very desirable that the co-operation which will thus be facilitated express itself in published news-letters from Washington. The Bureau of Education or the *Journal of the National Education Association* would render a service to national education if in addition to their other publications they would issue a news-letter describing significant happenings in the field of education.

Such a news-letter properly conducted would go far toward relieving the dull and gossipy personalities which fill the local

educational journals and leave on the reader's mind the impression that nothing large is happening in American education.

The fact is that vocational education is making great progress and in many states is being put on a thoroughly sound basis with wholesome relation to the three R's. The country needs to know more about the details of these well-conducted experiments and also the waste involved in such organizations as that which Wisconsin has set up.

The child-labor problem has come to be clearly recognized as one of the greatest importance for national life. Teachers ought to be made fully alive to its significance.

As for the National Education Association, it has been in recent years neither national in its scope nor uniformly educational in its interests. If its officers can see the importance of drawing it out of the petty politics and fruitless quibbling which have distracted it and limited its usefulness, there is no reason why it should not become a real medium for the collection of educational information and the exercise of some influence in shaping school policies. It is to be hoped that association with the Bureau of Education and with life in the national capital will lead the National Education Association to organize some committees which will work up reports of real character, like those which were prepared a quarter of a century ago. With proper facilities for publication and a new spirit of devotion to education, this Association has large but as yet unrealized possibilities.

Detroit's New School Board and Its By-Laws

When the new school board was elected in Detroit last spring a first step was taken in the direction of a sound school organization. It is a matter of interest to all school systems in the country to learn how such a new board organizes the machinery that is to operate the schools. Will the board separate business from education? Will the board handicap the superintendent in the matter of appointments? Who is in charge of supplies?

Detroit has an answer to these and other like questions in a series of by-laws which will be recognized at once as sound in principle and clear in statement. School systems in all parts of the

United States will be influenced by these by-laws. The significant paragraphs with regard to the superintendent and the business organization are as follows:

II. SUPERINTENDENT

The Superintendent of Schools shall be the Executive Officer of the Board of Education and under its direction he shall attend all meetings of the Board and be granted the privilege of taking part in its deliberations.

1. He shall establish and change the boundaries of school districts.

2. He alone shall be directly responsible to the Board of Education for the efficient operation of all school functions of the Board of Education.

3. He shall have sole power to nominate and to assign, transfer, promote, and demote or suspend all assistant superintendents, supervisors, principals, teachers, and other employees of the Board of Education as hereinafter provided. All nominations, promotions, demotions, suspensions, assignments, and transfers of employees of the Board of Education which shall be made by the Superintendent shall be reported in writing to the Board at its next regular meeting and shall stand confirmed unless disapproved by the Board by a vote of not less than four members of the Board. He shall have immediate control of all assistant superintendents, supervisors, principals, and teachers. All directions and suggestions to them with reference to the performance of their respective duties shall come through him.

4. He shall prepare and submit to the Board for approval the several courses of study to be followed, and shall select and recommend to the Board for adoption all textbooks used in the schools. In the preparation of such courses and the selection of such textbooks he shall have the co-operation of other officers of instruction and of such special committees of teachers, principals, and supervisors as he may from time to time appoint for such specific purposes.

5. He shall, on or before the first meeting of January, submit to the Board of Education an estimate of expenditure for all purposes of the Board of Education for the ensuing year.

III. BUSINESS MANAGER

The Business Manager shall be the Secretary of the Board and shall be directly responsible to, and under the direction of, the Superintendent of Schools for the efficient administration of the construction, maintenance, and operation of buildings, purchase, storage, and distribution of supplies, acounting and auditing, and insuring of school property.

1. He shall furnish bond to the amount of $10,000, cost to be assumed by the Board of Education.

2. He shall maintain an accounting procedure adequate to record in detail all transactions affecting the acquisition, custodianship, and disposition of values, including cash receipts and disbursements.

3. He shall submit, through the Superintendent at the first regular monthly meeting of the Board, a statement showing the status of each appropriation item and such other statements as may from time to time be deemed advisable to show the financial condition of the Board.

4. He shall prepare an inventory of the property of the Board as of June 30 of each year, and submit the same through the Superintendent to the Board not later than August 1 of each year.

5. He shall recommend, through the Superintendent, to the Board the employment and dismissal of all subordinates under his jurisdiction.

6. He shall purchase all supplies and materials approved for purchase by the Board, and shall store and distribute the same.

7. He shall have general control of all persons employed in the department of the Business Manager and shall be responsible for the operation of all buildings.

8. He shall have general supervision of all the repairs to buildings authorized by the Board, and of the maintenance of the land and buildings of the Board.

9. He shall be responsible for the construction and alteration of buildings in accordance with the plans and specifications approved by the Board.

10. He shall be the custodian of all property, real or personal, owned or borrowed by the Board.

IX. EXPENDITURES

1. (*a*) All purchases of furniture and supplies and of all material needed in making repairs and in doing any work, shall be made by the Business Manager, under direction of the Superintendent. All purchases exceeding $100 in amount shall be made from the lowest responsible bidder, unless the Board otherwise directs. Purchases shall be made upon numbered orders, and when bills are rendered for such goods, said bills shall give the number of the order upon which goods were supplied.

(*b*) In case of urgent necessity, the Business Manager shall be authorized to incur a liability not exceeding two hundred dollars.

2. (*a*) Pay rolls for salaries, estimates of contractors, and bills for payment of all purchases must in all cases be properly certified and attached to a voucher on which shall be entered the name, date, amount, etc. When so certified and audited, the voucher shall be presented to the Board, and if the Board shall approve and order payment of same, such action, with the date thereof, shall be indorsed thereon by the Business Manager. No bills shall be paid unless so audited and approved.

(*b*) All teachers, engineers, janitors, workmen, and other employees drawing money from the Board of Education, and all claims duly approved as provided by law shall be paid by the City Treasurer after being certified by the City Controller.

3. Salaries of all positions shall be named at the time or before the nomination or appointment. The pay of workmen shall be fixed by the Business Manager, at the time of employment, and be at a rate per day.

The New York City Election and the Gary Plan

Mayor Mitchel of New York has for some years favored the Gary plan for the schools of that city and has given the plan his active support. Judge Hylan, the Tammany candidate opposing Mayor Mitchel, who is running as an independent candidate for re-election, is making the Gary plan and the alleged domination of the Board of Education by the Rockefeller Foundation two of the most important items in his campaign.

Judge Hylan's position is stated in the following extracts from an address as quoted in the *New York Tribune* of September 8:

"We have a city of steadily increasing population," said the candidate. "Yet, when our schools open next week it will be without the addition of a single new schoolhouse to take care of this increase. Money that should have been spent in the construction of new schools has been wasted in a profligate manner upon real estate purchases which are useless to the city, but which have provided enormous profits for private individuals who are close personal friends of some of our high officials.

"Our school children are the ones who suffer most as the result of these real estate scandals. In the futile attempt to make a financial showing to the taxpayers and offset the money wasted in the purchase of useless real estate the present administration has sought to economize on the schools. They have instituted a system which is called the Gary system, the result of which has been to greatly reduce fundamental education and place an added physical strain upon the child. In addition, it has imposed great inconvenience in the home."

Judge Hylan declared that the Gary plan was in fact no plan at all, but simply a "political makeshift," intended to convey the idea that Mayor Mitchel and his cabinet had evolved a plan whereby their campaign pledge of 1913 "to give a seat at school to every child" had been kept. He declared that they had not kept their pledge.

Referring to what he would do, if elected, to "ameliorate conditions," the judge declared that the Board of Education must first be freed from "the political, financial, and private influences which now dominate it." He advocated the control of the school system by the state instead of the municipal authorities, declaring that the Board of Education should have unrestricted power in directing and administering the system of public education, and that the public officials should not be in a position to "tighten the purse strings or force the adoption of any particular plan."

The Tammany candidate charged that Mayor Mitchel had pledged his appointees to the Board of Education to accept the theories of the Rockefeller Foundation. He pointed out that the next mayor will have the appointment of a new board of seven members. He declared that if elected he would see to it that his appointees would not be influenced or dominated by the Rockefeller Foundation or other private influence.

"We must not have one class of education for the children of the poor," he said, "and another kind of education for those children of the rich who can afford to buy it in private schools."

President Willcox, of the New York Board of Education, has asked Commissioner Finley to study the Gary schools of New York. The State Department replied to this request as follows:

We have undertaken to begin on September 1 an examination of two of the smaller city school systems of the State. As soon as these are completed (or earlier if we are able to secure additional assistance of such quality as to assure the public of the entire dependability of our findings) we will enter upon this examination.

I believe with you that this is an opportunity for the State Department of Education to render a great service, not only to the schools of New York City, but also to those of the State, and incidentally to the cause of education in the country at large.

The *Brooklyn Eagle* comments on this move as follows:

One of the wisest things which President Willcox of the Board of Education has done is his appeal to State Superintendent of Education Finley for a study of and report on the work of the Gary schools in this city. The sooner Dr. Finley can arrange to have the work done the better for the cause of popular education in this city. The only regrettable thing about his reply to Mr. Willcox was his statement that the work must be delayed.

This Gary school plan is a matter upon which there has been much heat and little light. The outstanding fact is that the school machine here has been fighting the plan tooth and nail since the first talk of its introduction, and that any success it has made here has been over this powerful opposition. The policy of the school machine was for a seat for every child and the Board of Education stood with it until that historic occasion, early in the war, when the Board of Education went to the Board of Estimate with a demand for $40,000,000 for new school houses, at a time when extreme measures were required to protect the city's credit.

That was the turning point. The Gary plan was accepted by the Board of Education as a financial necessity, when, in fact, its promoters claim that it gives a better rounded and broader education than the old plan, without

regard to the fact that it enables our schoolhouses almost to double the number of children whom they teach. The plan has now been carried far enough in the Bronx and Brooklyn to have some results to show, as to the effect of its teaching as well as to its economy. It is idle to expect a fair judgment on those results either from the teachers or the parents. The parents lack sufficient knowledge to make the judgment. The teachers are either hardened partisans of the old system or else converts to the new since its introduction, and it is an old story that there is no partisan so fierce as a new convert. What the people of New York want is a judgment which shall be both intelligent and fair. Dr. Finley's investigators will no doubt have the necessary experience to be intelligent and they should be far enough removed from the controversy to be fair. We are spending money rapidly for Gary schools and we should know at the earliest practicable moment whether that money is being wasted.

The situation in New York is very gratifying to the school people of the country in so far as it shows with perfect clearness that school issues are recognized as public matters of the highest importance. It is safe to say that cities increasingly will demand good schools and will make this demand a primary issue in all civic discussions.

The situation in New York is depressing in so far as it exhibits a group of school officers unable to give any clear-cut, scientific information about the schools and their needs. While politicians fight and citizens wonder, school officers are unable to produce evidence that carries conviction. If a Board of Health were ineffective, one could find it out. If a police department were inefficient, again a clear demonstration could be given. Here is a school system which spends about one quarter of the revenues of the greatest city in this hemisphere, and no one can tell us convincingly whether the experiment which it has tried with the Gary plan is a success or a failure. In place of demonstration there is speculation and intellectual fog.

In such an example of lack of information about the results of school work there is certainly the clearest evidence that schools must learn a new lesson. They must acquire the art of knowing themselves. New York City schools need to learn to evaluate their work. Until they do they will be disorganized within and the football of politics without.

Teaching German in the Schools

Any adequate account of the discussion which is now going on with regard to the teaching of German in the schools calls for some review of the reasons why German was first introduced into the curriculum. In a half-dozen of the middle states the German language has been made an optional or required course in elementary schools. Such a treatment of German has evidently not been based on educational grounds, for Latin and French and other languages have been barred. The introduction of German was on purely nationalistic grounds and was possible because of the desire of boards of education and city governments to satisfy the "German voters."

German in the high schools had an entirely different justification. There it has its place as one of several foreign languages and has taken its chances with other courses in an elective system.

With the declaration of war the discussion began, and every possible shade of opinion has been expressed.

We may begin with Chicago. There was a page in the speller lauding the Kaiser. This was removed. Then came the following announcement of action on the German language:

> The German language still will be taught in the Chicago public schools. The board of education has compromised on the German question and has accepted a resolution of Superintendent John D. Shoop not to take new pupils in the elementary schools in the subject. But the courses for those already enrolled will go on, and a series of motions offered by Trustee Anthony Czarnecki at yesterday's meeting to offset the sway of the Kaiser have been referred to the superintendent. Mr. Shoop will report on Sept. 11.
>
> Mr. Czarnecki wanted to drop language instruction in the elementary schools, permit children already taking German to drop it, discontinue notices to parents that German instruction is given, and abolish the position of supervisor of German.

Buffalo dealt with the matter in like manner, but "quietly."

> The study of German is being gradually and quietly withdrawn from the public schools of Buffalo.
>
> No formal action has been taken by the board of education, it was stated today, but, with the commencing of the new school term, no new German classes are to be started.
>
> Formerly the study of German was optional with grammar-school students on entering the fourth grade and became a regents subject upon entering the seventh grade. With the opening of the present school term, however, German

forms no part of the fourth-grade course. Pupils who have already started its study have the option of continuing or dropping it.

Milwaukee has adopted the elective system, as has Columbus, Ohio.

A majority of the rules committee of the School Board takes the common-sense view that the question of whether or not a child attending the public schools shall study a foreign language should be determined by the expressed desire of the child's parents. The present method of assuming that all the children attending Milwaukee public schools are desired to learn German meets no approbation whatever from a great many patrons of the schools.

In Cincinnati the superintendent evidently thought it well to be quite emphatic about the matter of election.

School Superintendent Condon sent instructions Saturday to Dr. H. H. Fick, who has charge of the German teaching in the public schools, to instruct all teachers of German to be careful not to influence the pupils in making the decision as to whether they desire to study German. Dr. Condon said that he did not believe it was the intention of these teachers to bring their influence to bear on the pupils in this matter, but that he thought it best to issue the instructions.

Each teacher will supply pupils with the blanks to be presented to parents for their signatures, as to their wishes in the matter of German teaching. The parent is to indicate whether it is desired that the child continue German or enroll newly in German classes. An important detail is that no class in any study may be formed with a membership of less than twenty pupils. This, it is believed by many teachers, also by President Withrow of the Board of Education, will go far to taking care of the German-teaching situation automatically.

Cleveland did its deciding in a formal way and finds satisfaction in its economy.

German will be taught in but 11 of Cleveland's 98 elementary schools this year. German instruction in these schools will be confined to pupils in the eighth grade who have studied it a year and whose parents wish them to continue the course.

Last year there were German classes in fifty-three elementary schools. Under Superintendent Spaulding's plan for its elimination from the elementary-school curricula German instruction is to be confined to buildings in which the number of pupils asking for it exceed twenty-five. A further restriction was that the Teuton tongue would be taught in no more than twenty-six schools. The poll taken of parents' wishes in the matter shows that only in one-fifth of the schools in which German was offered last year is it wanted this year.

In the junior and senior high schools, where the study of foreign languages is elective, 1,605 students through their parents have elected to take German, while 759 ask for French and 196 for Spanish.

Thirteen teachers have been assigned to teach German in the elementary grades, but half that number will not be needed. Dr. Spaulding therefore has a new problem confronting him, that of placing the surplus German instructors in other positions. By the partial elimination of German $40,000 in salaries has been saved.

Hoboken dealt radically with the matter.

Teaching of German was removed from the curriculum of the Hoboken public schools yesterday by a unanimous vote of the Board of Education, and for the first time in twenty-five years children in the grammar grades will not be required to study that language. High-school students may elect to study the language in the last two years of their course, but hereafter students will be compelled to study only English.

James T. Laverty, President of the Hoboken Board of Education, who submitted the resolution for the removal of the study of German, said that it was his idea to simplify the curriculum so that students might be graduated at an earlier age. He pointed out German as one of the subjects that might be dropped without disadvantage, and the Board of Education supported him. Members of Germanic descent also voted for the resolution.

Most of the opposition to the compulsory study of German came from two district schools, where most of the students were Italians. They objected to the study of German, particularly after Italy entered the war, and open rebellion of classes has been reported to the Board of Education. When the study of German was made compulsory more than half of the students were of German descent. Now they are only about a fourth of the total number of pupils.

Professor Otto Hoch, who has taught the language in the grammar school, has been transferred to the high-school department, where he will become director of a bureau of Americanization. He will instruct aliens of all nationalities in the drawing of naturalization papers, and tell them of the rights and privileges of American citizenship. In addition he will aid in the teaching of English.

Two editorials with which we can in the main agree are the following, the first from the *New York Times*, the second from the *World*, of Omaha, Nebraska:

From several parts of the country come reports that the local educational authorities have stopped the teaching of the German language in the public schools. This has been done even in Hoboken, where, by people whose knowledge of that city's population is as far from up to date as are most of the jokes made about it, the assumption survives that Hoboken, if not exactly a

German city, is ruled by men of German birth or descent, and sure on that account to insist on the retention of German in the public-school curriculum.

For adequate reasons, the news that any American city has ceased to waste, and worse than waste, the time of its public-school teachers and its public-school pupils in order to give the latter what is in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, if not in 999 out of 1,000, an entirely worthless smattering of German, might be commended as indicative of increasing intelligence in that community. It is somewhat to be regretted, however, that in so many places the reform has been made as a sort of war measure and evidences hostility to a country with which the United States is at war rather than a realization of the fact that to teach any foreign language whatever in the public schools is a serious mistake, nowhere committed with any better excuse than that it gratifies the racial vanity of a greater or less number of parents.

Really to learn German would be not less useful to young Americans now than it was in the past or will be in the future. The war has not decreased any value that German literature ever possessed, and to speak, write, and understand German remains an accomplishment about as desirable as like facility in any other foreign language and more desirable than in the case of many that could be mentioned. The one sound argument is against studying any such language in the lower grades of our public schools. For the great majority of the children attending them, those grades must give all the formal education they will ever get, and it is vitally important that their scanty opportunities should be utilized to distinctly practical advantage.

It is a curious and significant truth that those who advocate the teaching of one or another foreign language in the public schools are themselves competent to give their children better instruction in the only language that interests them than they could possibly get in any school, no matter how good.

The *World* says:

The *Duluth Herald*, a newspaper as sensible as it is patriotic, hits the nail squarely on the head when, discussing the teaching of German in the schools, it says:

"The war situation has given rise to much talk about the teaching of foreign languages in the public schools, and much arrant nonsense has been uttered on both sides of the issue.

"Those who oppose teaching German, for instance, simply because they hate Germany are wrong.

"And those who urge the teaching of German simply because they love Germany are equally wrong.

"A clear line should be drawn between the teaching of foreign languages for cultural benefits and commercial advantage and the teaching of foreign languages to perpetuate the alienism of those who speak these tongues."

Neither the German language nor any other language should be taught in the public schools, as the *Herald* rightly contends, for the purpose of preventing

the successful assimilation as American citizens of those who are of foreign birth or descent. It is extremely doubtful, moreover, if any substantial benefit comes from teaching German, or other foreign languages, in the grade schools under any circumstances. It is there that English and the common elements of knowledge should be thoroughly inculcated. The study of other languages, it would seem, might better wait for the high-school and college years, when the assimilation of culture on a broader scale is properly attempted.

To teach German anywhere to further German alienism and German propaganda is "bad business"—bad for America and bad for the Germans in America. The *Herald* is right about that. It is just as right in saying: "The German language ought not to be thrown out of the schools simply because we are at war with Germany and utterly disapprove of her spirit, her government, her aims, and her methods."

Long after this war is over the German language will live. It will continue to be the key to a great and priceless literature and to an immense storehouse of riches, scientific and philosophical, that are of enduring value to the world. The United States might be able to do without it, if it were foolish enough to wish it and to assume that heavy handicap. But the United States will not wish it, and no more will any other nation now at war with Germany.

If America will estimate at their true worth the high ideals of Woodrow Wilson, it will realize that it is not on the German people but on their vicious and dangerous government that we war, and while we hate the evil institution we do not hate the people who live under it. Least of all do we hate their language, or their contributions to the arts and sciences—to medicine, to poetry, to music, or any other department of human knowledge and culture.

Cut for Silent-Reading Tests

The editors regret that the mistake was made of omitting a cut at the end of the article on Silent Reading by Mr. Arthur Gist in the September number of the *Journal*. The cut is printed below and it is hoped that readers will be able to supplement the article by reference to this chart. It is referred to in the paragraph at the bottom of page 55 of the September number.

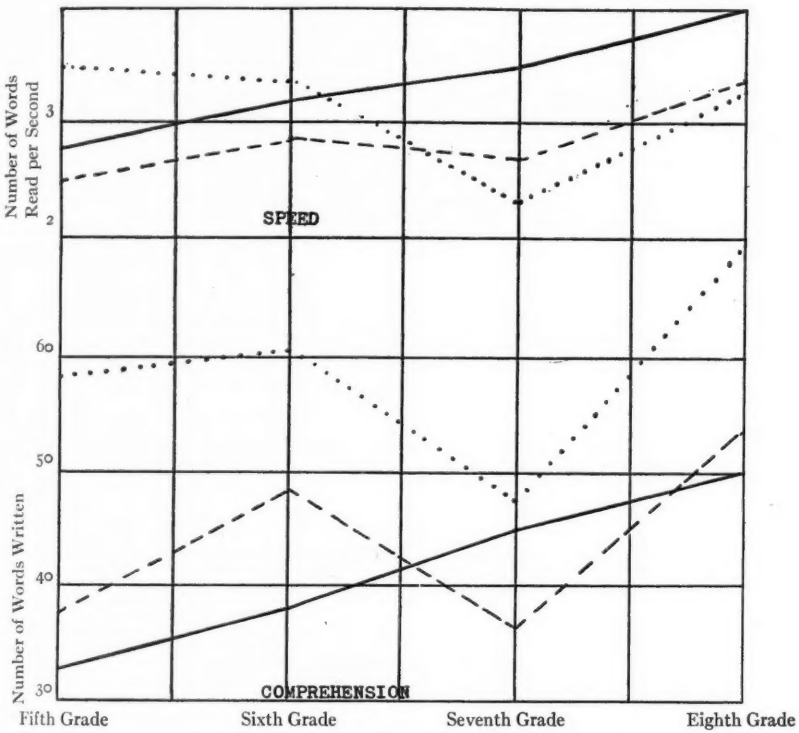

CHART I.—Starch Reading Tests: Unbroken lines, Starch standards; broken lines, November tests; dotted lines, May tests.

THE UNDERSTANDING OF SENTENCES: A STUDY OF ERRORS IN READING

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It is the purpose of this report to give a rough sketch of the mistakes made in reading certain paragraphs by students in the elementary school and the first year of the high school, and to state certain facts and principles which are demonstrated, or at least made highly probable, by this census of errors.

In general, the material used here will be paragraphs and questions whose words singly are fairly well known to the pupils in question, but whose sentence structure is somewhat more elaborate than pupils of the grade in question can manage. That is, the study is primarily concerned with the ability of the pupil to understand totals, few of whose elements are unknown, but whose internal relations are somewhat intricate and subtle. Just what the pupil's task was will be clear in each case.

Consider first the task of A, B, and C, shown below, in the case of pupils in Grades III to VIII, remembering that here and in all later cases the paragraphs and questions were before the pupil in print, subject according to instructions to as frequent re-reading and as much study as he chose to give to them.[1]

A

Read this and then write the answers to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. Read it again as often as you need to.

Tom gave a gray cat to Mary. She gave him a black dog.

1. What did Tom give the girl?.....
2. What did the girl give Tom?.....
3. What was the girl's name?.....

[1] The general custom of trying to do all the work that is given out and the sight of other pupils handing in their papers doubtless counteracted the instructions to some extent.

4. What color was the dog?.....
5. What color was the cat?.....
6. Was the dog the same color as the cat?.....
7. Did Mary give Tom anything?.....
8. Who gave the cat to Mary?.....

B

Read this and then write the answers to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. Read it again as often as you need to.

John had two cents. Tom had four cents. Will had six cents. Mary had ten cents.

1. Who had the most?.....
2. Who had the least?.....
3. Did Tom have more than Will?.....
4. Did Mary have more than Will?.....
5. How many cents did John have?.....
6. How many cents did the girl have?.....
7. Which boy had the most?.....
8. Did Tom have two cents more than John?.....

C

Read this and then write the answers to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8. Read it again as often as you need to.

John went to the store to work and Will went to school, but Fred went to the park and played ball. Will and Fred came back at four o'clock. John did not come back until after six o'clock.

1. Where did Will go?.....
2. What did Fred do at the park?.....
3. Where did John work?.....
4. Who came back at four o'clock?.....
5. Who came back later?.....
6. What time was it when Fred came back?.....
7. Where did one of the boys play ball?.....
8. Did John come back at the same time as Will?.....

The first possibility to consider is the failure to set the mind toward reading and writing the answers, nothing being written. This occurs very, very rarely. The next possibility is the prepotency of some other sets of associations productive of writing

over the "read answer" set. So a pupil (of Grade IV A) copies all the questions, or copies the last two words, or writes

1. What did Tom give the girl?.....said Mary.
2. What did the girl give Tom?.....asked her sister.
3. What was the girl's name?.....said her mother.
4. What color was the dog?.....asked Tom.
5. What color was the cat?.....said Mary.
6. Was the dog the same color as the cat?.....asked the woman.
7. Did Mary give Tom anything?.....said her sister.
8. Who gave the cat to Mary?.....etc.

The complete prepotency of some such set is very rare.

Such a prepotency of a wrong set of bonds may appear at the beginning and be discarded as in this case from Grade VI B:

What did he give the girl?.....
What did the girl give?.....
What was her name?.....
What color is the dog?.....
What color is the cat?.....
Was the he the same color as the she?.....
Did she give him anything?.....
Who gave the cat to her?.....

This substitution of pronouns stops at the end of A, the rest of the work being done as directed and with correct results.

Such a prepotency may come in to replace the correct set as in this case from Grade III B:

1. What did Tom give the girl?.....a gray cat.
2. What did the girl give Tom?.....black dog.
3. What was the girl's name?.....girl's name.
4. What color was the dog?.....the dog.
5. What color was the cat?.....the cat.
6. Was the dog the same color as the cat?.....the cat.
7. Did Mary give Tom anything?.....Tom anything.
8. Who gave the cat to Mary?.....etc.

The questions themselves may be prepotent, little or no reference being made to the paragraphs. This is perhaps eight times as frequent as the errors previously described, but is still very rare. The following (III A) is one of the most extreme cases of neglect of the paragraph as a feature of the situation (dashes mean correct answers, using the facts of the paragraph):

A

1. Tom gave the girl a skate.
2. - - - - -
3. - - - - -
4. - - - - -
5. gray and white.
6. the dog was gray and white.
7. she gave him a chicer bord.
8. - - - - -

B

1. John did have the most titkets.
2. Yes Tom had 75 and Will had 40 (illegible).
3. he had 50c.
4. she has $1.00.
5. Johefs had $2.00.
6. had 3c and Tom has 5c.

C

1. he went to Bronx Park.
2. - - - - -
3. in the country.
4. Joe did.
5. - - - - -
6. - - - - -
7. in the forest.
8. Yes they came home at 4 o'clock.

Even here the paragraphs are used somewhat; and in general the condition is one of frequent or occasional, not total, neglect of the paragraph. It is easily shown that the paragraphs have been at least partly read and are effective to some extent in determining response even in those cases where the pupil at first sight seems to be attending to the question only. For example, a girl responds to questions 1, 2, 3, and 4 on paragraph A by:

A

1. a new hat.
2. a new suit.
3. Helen Chrystal.
4. gray dog.

The gray is almost surely due to the "gray" in the paragraph, since it is a very unlikely associate for the question alone.

The wrong paragraph is sometimes used, especially for the last question of A, where by far the most frequent mistake is "John."

Where the question is answered with the aid of the paragraph a very common error is the use of a wrong element from the paragraph. Actual inventions are very rare, if any word that makes sense is found in the paragraph. Thus in wrong answers the dog is most often *gray*, the cat most often *black*. Will went to the park, *John* came back at four o'clock, *Fred* came back later, and so on. The addition of a wrong element found in the paragraph also occurs. Thus the dog or cat is "*gray and black*," "*John and* Mary" had the most," "*Tom and* Will" or "Will *and John*" or "Fred *and John*" came back at four o'clock.

The failure to use the facts of the paragraph to show the inappropriateness of an answer is of course common, as in the cases quoted here. Much less common, but still occurring, is the failure to call up and use obvious facts of general experience which conflict with the answer as written. Thus *blue* as the dog's color, or *all* as the answer to the question, "Did John come back at the same time as Will?"

These facts—the use of a wrong element and the addition of a wrong element to the correct one—are better considered as special cases of a much more general and very important principle that *any element in the paragraph may be over-potent in determining the response*. It is not so true to say that the pupil often selects a wrong element for his answer as to say that every element of the paragraph tends to appear as the response to any question whatever about it. Thus "John," "Tom," "Will," "John and Mary," and "John had two cents" all appear as responses to question 1 on paragraph B, and "Tom," "Will," and "Mary" as responses to question 2 on paragraph B. It will appear unless some other element outdistances it or unless it is repressed by some contrary force. Evidence for this I have given in detail elsewhere.[1] It consists of cases of over-potency, like that of *xyz* in the following:

H

Read this and then write the answers to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. Read it again as often as you need to.

[1] *Psychological Review*, May, 1917.

You need a coal range in winter for kitchen warmth and for continuous hot-water supply, but in summer, when you want a cool kitchen and less hot water, a gas range is better. The *xyz* ovens are safe. In the end ovens there is an extra set of burners for broiling.

1. What two varieties of stoves does the paragraph mention?
"*xyz*." "Gas range and *xyz*."
"*xyz* ovens and end ovens."
2. What effect has the use of a gas range instead of a coal range upon the temperature of the kitchen?
.....
3. What is needed to provide a supply of hot water all day long?
"The *xyz* ovens are safe."
4. For what purpose is the extra set of burners?
"The *xyz* ovens."
5. In what part of the stove are they situated?
"The *xyz* oven side."
6. During what season of the year is a gas range preferable?
.....

In a similar manner nearly every element in paragraph I becomes over-potent in the case of some pupils, as shown by the responses by pupils in Grades V, VI, and VII, which are shown in Table I.

I

Read this and then write the answers to 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Read it again as often as you need to.

Nearly fifteen thousand of the city's workers joined in the parade on September seventh, and passed before two hundred thousand cheering spectators. There were workers of both sexes in the parade, though the men far out-numbered the women.

1. What is said about the number of persons who marched in the parade?
.....
2. Which sex was in the majority?
.....
3. What did the people who looked at the parade do when it passed by?
.....
4. How many people saw the parade?
.....
5. On what date did the event described in the paragraph occur?
....

TABLE I

Over-potent Element	Question	Response
Fifteen thousand	1	Passed before 200000 and 15000
	2	The fifteen thousand
	3	Fifteen thousand of the parade
	4	Fifteen thousand
Workers	2	Workers
		Workers of sex in the parade
		Workers were in the majority
	3	There were workers
Joined	1	They joined
		They were joined
	3	They were joined in the parade
		They cheered, they joined them
Parade	2	In the parade
		Both in parade
		Sexes in the parade
	5	The parade
Seventh	1	September seventh
	2	Seventh
	3	September seventh
	4	Seventh Avenue
Two hundred	1	Passed before two hundred
	2	Two hundred spectators
	3	Two hundred thousand
	4	Two hundred
Cheering	2	Cheering
Spectators	1	Parade spectators
	2	Spectators and working
	3	The people who looked cheered the spectators
Both	2	There were both workers
		There were workers in both spectators
Sexes	1	People of both sexes cheering them
	2	Sexes in the parade
		Sixes
		Cheered the sex in the parade
Though	5	Thought the man fat out
Men	2	Men and women
	3	They cheered the men in the parade
	4	The men outnumbered the women
Far	2	Far out women
Out	3	They counted out how many women
Numbered	3	They numbered the people
		Numbered the women
		The men numbered women
Women	2	Sexes of women
		Men and women

It is also the case that elements in the question tend to be over-potent and to determine response more or less irrespective of the rest of the question. Thus in question 2 on paragraph A *girl* so acts producing the response "Mary." In question 1 on paragraph B *most* so acts producing the response "22c all." In question 3 on paragraph B *more* so acts producing "2 cents more" and "4 cents more." In question 5 on paragraph B *How many cents* so acts producing "four cents," "six cents," "ten cents."

In the case of question 1 on paragraph I we have responses showing *is said, number, persons, marched,* and *parade* acting over-potently.

is said ..... {"They say halt." / "The captain says march."}

number ..... {"The men outnumbered the women." / "They outnumbered the women."}

persons ..... "Irish."

marched ..... {"They marched nice." / "They marched very straight."}

parade ..... "There were a lot of floats."

Under-potency is the obvious complement of over-potency. Notable cases are the answers "Yes" to question 1 on paragraph F, and "No" to question 2 on paragraph F due to under-potency of the *It may seem, but other duties prevent,* and *might let her lessons go undone.* These answers are very common.

F

Read this and then write the answers to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10. Read it again as often as you need to.

It may seem at first thought that every boy and girl who goes to school ought to do all the work that the teacher wishes done. But sometimes other duties prevent even the best boy or girl from doing so. If a boy's or girl's father died and he had to work afternoons and evenings to earn money to help his mother, such might be the case. A good girl might let her lessons go undone in order to help her mother by taking care of the baby.

1. Must a good boy always do all his school work?

.....

2. Will a good girl sometimes fail to get all her lessons?

.....

3. What are some conditions that might make even the best boy leave school work unfinished?

.....

4. Answer the question just asked, supposing it to be a girl instead of a boy?

.....

5. What might a boy do in the evenings to help his family?

.....

6. How could a girl be of use to her mother?

.....

7. What is it that might seem at first thought to be true, but really is false?

.....

8. What sort of boys and girls does the paragraph tell about?

.....

9. What might be the effect of his father's death upon the way a boy spent his time?

.....

10. Who is mentioned in the paragraph as the person who desires to have all lessons completely done?

.....

In question 3 on paragraph F the *s* of *conditions* is very, very commonly under-potent, the answers being, "If his father died," or "He might have to work." These are so common that in the use of question 3 on paragraph F in a scale we call them correct. *Even the best boy* is under-potent, as shown in the responses, "Play," "Go playing in the streets," "Ball," "To play ball,"[1] "Bad," "Conduct, misbehavior, inattention," "Idleness." All but the last four words are under-potent in the case of the answer, "He never gets his lessons."

The responses to questions 3, 4, and 7 on paragraph F are interesting samples of a general fact—the small number of omissions compared with the number of wrong responses. For example, out of 80 children in Grade IV, only 7 omitted question 3 or said that they could not answer it; four times that number failed to give a correct answer. Out of 146 children in Grade V, only 8 omitted it; about three times that number failed to give a correct answer. The pupils either think that they have understood the question and

[1] The author does not imply that there are not in reality valid excuses for even the best boy, but the responses are probably not due to any such sophistications!

paragraph, or write answers in which they have little confidence, or (and this occurs very often) do not use any clear criterion for understanding. There seems to be a strong tendency in human nature to accept as satisfactory whatever ideas arise quickly—to trust any course of thought that runs along fluently. If the question makes the pupil think of anything or if he finds anything in the paragraph that seems to belong with the question, he accepts it without criticism. Wrong answers are, in reading tests with all ages, too frequent in comparison with admissions of ignorance. This holds of tests in other subjects also.

It seems probable that in scoring pupils' work in schools an admission of ignorance should not be penalized as heavily as an absurd or specially harmful error, and that inadequacies and errors in general should be penalized somewhat more heavily than they now are, at least in the many cases where it is much more useful to know that one does not know and to say so, than to respond wrongly. On the other hand, a mere chronic suspicion and skepticism concerning one's ideas is undesirable. It is healthy to trust the ideas which the laws of habit produce, provided we maintain an active watch for other ideas which may tell whether the first ones are appropriate. The pupil should learn to criticize his responses, but not to be frightened into a mental paralysis.

The responses in these tests show that a tendency produced by reading a paragraph does not remain *in statu quo*, but shrinks and swells, adds on a blossom here or drops off a branch there, all within a minute or less. For example, in question 3 on paragraph F we have as the initial condition, "If father died." This becomes in many cases, "If her father *or mother* died," or, "If a parent died"; a somewhat further growth gives, "Parents dead"; along a different line comes, "If father, *mother, or brother* died, "If father, *mother, or baby* died," and "Death in family"; then comes, "Death of a relative"; finally, we have "If *anyone* dies." The original father may drop out as in, "Death to his mother." *Sickness* is a natural addition as in, "Mother or father sick or dead," and, "Death or sickness in the family." Various elements, relevant or otherwise, suggested by the family-circle set of mind may become attached, as in, "Death in the family and poverty and sickness," "The

father or mother died, he have to sell papers," "To get a doctor for a member of the family," "He might leave school if his father died," "Father dies he's have to take his work papers," "His father might die he might have to mind the baby," "If he is injured and if his father died." "Death and money," and "Father or mother dead, bad parents." Some of these responses may have been made irrespective of the *father died* of the paragraph, but the series in general is explainable by the "father died" tendency leading to other family deaths, to death, to sickness, to injury, to getting a doctor.

The responses to question 7 on paragraph F are instructive first as showing very emphatically the tendency of poorer readers to let certain elements be under-potent, in this case the first sentence of the paragraph and to some extent all of the paragraph. Whereas over six-tenths of the pupils in Grade VIII B give the answer suggested by the paragraph, less than one-tenth of those in Grade IV do so. This is a sample of many other facts which show that the giving of answers that fit the question but not the paragraph is fundamentally simply one special case of under- or over-potency—of under-potency of the paragraph or over-potency of the question. It is not the case that good readers deliberately consider only the question. They understand that they are expected to find answers that fit the paragraph, but they neglect this purpose for the time being, or they are carried away by a response suggested by the question alone, or they re-examine the paragraph, but fail to think of the way to use it, and so fall back on some response suggested by the question alone.

The answers to question 7 on paragraph F also show what happens when the pupil is unable to understand a question. He does not as a rule say "I do not know" or omit the response, but rather follows whatever leads are offered by the shreds of meaning that he does see, or by the mere words. In this case the meanings *true*, *false*, and *true-false* thus become over-potent and produce such responses as: "Always speak the truth," "Honesty," "Good," "Be true," "Good girl or boy," "Faith," "Being good," "May be true," "A lie," "A falsehood," "Do not tell a lie to anyone," "A dishonest speeching," "A false person," "A bad girl is always false,"

"The boy who wants to shirk his work," "Not doing your daily work," "Doing wrong," "She is unhonestly," "The teacher might think the excuse false," "Because it might be a liar," "A boy might be false," "He might be telling a lie," "Make believe your lessons are done," "That he is honest and afterward found to be false," "He has to show it," "Nothing."

There may be a mixture of this or that feature of the paragraph with the true-false elements in the question. Thus we have as responses: "Writing over," "To tell the teacher the truth," "Sickness," "Play truant from school," "Doing his duty," "Prevention," "Won't do her lessons," "Don't go to school," "To disobey your mother or father," "To leave school," "A good girl," "To help your mother," "Not to help the family."

When the "*seems true but is false*" is fairly understood, but the significance of the first sentence of the paragraph in connection with it is under-potent, there may be all degrees of potency of other elements of the paragraph from zero, in such responses as: "Moving pictures," "A big doll," "A painted man," to such as: "Death," "School," "Work," "To be rich," "Bad excuses," and then to stronger traces, as: "That the baby is sick," "To say your mother is sick and she isn't," "Telling the mother that he has to do lessons," "To think a fellow does his work when he doesn't," "That a child is too lazy to do honest work," and so on to clear products of the paragraph, such as: "Other duties," "That boys or girls do not do home work," "That the boy's father is dead," "That his father did not die," "When a boy or girl does not do their home work and has time to do it," "That a good boy or girl leaves school," "That a child does not want to do his lessons," "That good children do not always get their lessons done," "Do all his lessons if he cannot."

Question 7 on paragraph F also illustrates well the tendency of every element in a paragraph to act with undue potency. Even in a small group (about five hundred), a majority of whom are in Grades VI, VII, and VIII, we find almost every phrase in the paragraph given by somebody as a response to this one question. We have for example as responses: "Other duties," "Sometimes other duties," "That a boy or girl must not prevent their duties," "But other duties prevent them from doing so," "Prevention,"

"The best boy or girl to leave school," "If a boy or girl's father died," "Work," "A boy that does not go to work," "To help your mother," "A good girl helping her mother."

There are two contrasting forms of defective procedure used by children in these tests. The first is to examine the paragraph until some word or series of words is found which does not appear unsuitable, and to use that as the answer. The "Sometimes other duties" and "If a boy or girl's father died" quoted above are specimens of errors initiated by this procedure and left standing for lack of understanding of the question itself, or for lack of proper criticizing ideas. The second is to accept anything from within or without the paragraph which comes to mind without re-examining the paragraph at all closely. In the case of paragraph F, which deals with matters thoroughly familiar to the children, this second tendency is far stronger. If, however, we examine the responses to paragraph I, quoted on page 103, and those that follow in the case of paragraph M, we shall have abundant evidence of the tendency to use series of words verbatim, because of certain superficial appropriateness or because the pupil does not sufficiently feel the need of appropriateness.

M

Read this and then write the answers to 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Read it again as often as you need to.

However certain it may seem to be that men work only because they must, and would avoid labor except for the food, clothing, and luxuries that are its rewards, the facts may well be to the contrary. It can hardly be the case that men dislike work because they wish to be utterly idle. For mere rest, mere inactivity, is not commonly enjoyed. To have nothing to do is not what men seek. Were that so, we should envy the prisoner shut up in his cell. If men had to choose between a life spent at eight hours of work daily in a factory and a life spent at eight hours of sitting on a throne without moving hand or foot, many of them would, after trying both, choose the former. Activity of body or mind, at which a man can succeed, is, in and of itself, rather enjoyed than disliked.

1. What is it that this paragraph says may seem sure, but probably is false?

.....

2. In what respect is a prisoner in his cell like a man with a million dollars?

.....

3. If the absence of any activity were what we wished for, what would be our attitude toward a prisoner in his cell?

.....

4. What is stated in the paragraph to be really liked and not objected to?

.....

5. What choice is described in the paragraph as an argument that work, merely as such, is not always avoided?

.....

Responses of pupils in Grades VII and VIII in the first year of the high school are the following:

M 1. However certain it may be that men work.
Some men envy a prisoner in a cell rather than work.
Because they must and avoid labor for food, clothing, and luxuries.
Men dislike work because they wish to be utterly idle.
For mere rest mere inactivity is not enjoyed.
To have nothing to do is not what men seek.
Were that so we should envy the prisoner shut up in his cell.
If men had to choose . . . . former (quoted in full).
Activity of body is . . . . disliked (quoted in full).

M 2. He sits on the throne without moving a hand or foot.
We should envy him.
Activity of body or mind . . . . disliked (quoted in full).
It can hardly be the case . . . . idle (quoted in full).
The prisoner sits in his cell idle. The man with 1000000 sits on a throne without moving hand or foot.
To have nothing to do.
To have nothing to do is not what men seek.

M 3. To have nothing to do.
To work eight hours in a factory.
For mere rest, mere inactivity, is not commonly enjoyed.
For mere rest.
Is rather enjoyed than disliked.

M 4. Food clothing and shelter.
For a mere rest.
Men dislike work because they wish to be idle.
Men dislike work because they wish to be utterly idle.
That men work because they must.
To have nothing to do.

To have nothing to do is not what men seek.
Mere rest mere inactivity is commonly not enjoyed.
Eight hours of sitting on a throne.
He would rather be enjoyed than disliked.

M 5. A man can succeed rather than enjoy than disliked.
Would avoid labor except for food clothing.
Would avoid labor except for food clothing and luxuries.
For food clothes and luxuries.
For food clothing and luxuries that are its rewards.
That men dislike work because they wish to be idle.
To have nothing to do is not what men seek.
For mere rest and mere inactivity.
For mere rest mere activity is commonly not enjoyed.
To have nothing to do.
Activity in body and mind.
It is rather enjoyed than disliked.
A man activity of mind or body at which a man.
Activity of body and . . . : disliked (quoted in full).

This fishing around in the text for something to use and its use without reorganization is perhaps the most debased form of reasoning—selective thinking—which school work shows. Many educational theorists will, indeed, deny that it is reasoning. It certainly is a very inadequate form; and the extent to which it prevails amongst pupils in even the higher grades shows the need for practice in reading and study. I am inclined to think, however, that the cure for it is not to repress the verbatim use of wrong, irrelevant, or roughly appropriate quotations, but to permit it *plus careful examination of the quotations to see if they really do meet the need*.

So far little has been said concerning mistakes due to attaching the wrong meanings to words in the questions or in the paragraph, or to mistakes due to inadequate meanings. Such of course occur very frequently, but they require little explanation; nor would a recital of them add much to the obvious fact that failure of a word to call up its meaning necessarily hinders understanding of the question or paragraph. The relational words—conjunctions, pronouns, prepositions, such words as: as, seem, prevent, even, outnumbered, so as, only, contrary, may, hardly, and the like—are specially important in the case of these paragraphs, where the plan

was to use few rare or technical words. The entire subject of errors due directly to lack of word-knowledge may best be omitted from this paper. Indirectly, such lack favors over- and under-potency of elements and distortion of relations.

In general, the process in understanding (or in misunderstanding) a paragraph is as follows:

Each word (sometimes a part of a word) tends to call up those responses which are bound to it by the pupil's past experience working under the conditions of the present mental set. Of these responses some may be discarded from thought as soon as they appear. The one that is left as the determiner of meaning may be "right" or "wrong" or one that contributes zero meaning (such as the mere approximate sound of the word "paragraph" or "effect" or "condition" to a child who has never heard those words used). For the meaning attached to a word to be "right" means to be right for the purpose of understanding the paragraph—to be adapted to meanings of the other words. Tendencies for words to call up universally wrong meanings or meanings right in other connections but wrong here have to be suppressed. These contributory elements of meaning have to be felt in the right relations. The relations are indicated by the relational words, by the order of words in the paragraph, and by the word-forms and sentence structure.

The bonds leading from relational words, word-orders, and word-forms to the appropriate responses are often not so strong as they need to be for correct reading. There are consequently tendencies for the non-relational words to call up their customary relations, even though the conjunctions and sentence structure show that these customary relations do not hold in the paragraph in question. Thus, *Every boy and girl who goes to school ought to do all the work that the teacher wishes done* is understood as it is in disregard of the *It may seem at first thought that* which precedes it and the *But* which follows it. Thus, *men work . . . .* is related to *for food, clothing, and luxuries* according to past habit in disregard of the *it may seem that* and the *to the contrary.*

As one would expect, elements right in themselves will be transposed into wrong relations. *That men work only because they must*

becomes, "That men must work." *When you want a cool kitchen a gas range is better* produces, "For a gas range you need a cool kitchen."

The contributory tendencies of each word and word-group have to be right, not only in nature, but also in their amounts of potency or influence or force, each in comparison with the others. Understanding is "thinking things together." For each problem or purpose of understanding, the elements have to be organized in a balanced system. The complexity of this task is great in reading even a simple sentence. So the commonest cause of errors in the material we have examined is the under-potency or over-potency of certain elements in the questions or paragraph. The successful response to a question or to a paragraph's meaning implies the restraint of tendencies of many words to be over-potent and the special weighting of other tendencies. This task is quite beyond the power of weak minds, and is of the same selective and co-ordinating nature as the more obvious forms of reasoning in mathematics or science. It is this task which shows the comprehension of textbooks and lectures to be far above the level of merely "passive" or "receptive" work. When the reading of textbooks and the hearing of lectures is really passive or receptive, comprehension will rarely result.

Understanding a spoken or printed paragraph is then a matter of habits, connections, mental bonds, but these have to be selected from so many others, and given relative weights so delicately, and used together in so elaborate an organization that "to read" means "to think," as truly as does "to evaluate" or "to invent" or "to demonstrate" or "to verify."

AN OUTLINE OF THE COURSE IN GEOGRAPHY IN THE UNIVERSITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. II

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GRADE 5

General statement.—The study of Europe and Asia in Grade 5 follows well that of North America in Grade 4. The location of Eurasia in the Northern Hemisphere, in latitudes identical with those of North America, gives it climatic conditions comparable to those of the latter, and so makes it a suitable region for the application of knowledge acquired in the study of that continent. Some knowledge of Europe has been gained in the previous grades. The important geographic facts of the Mediterranean countries have been learned in connection with the Greek and Roman history of Grade 4.

Aims.—

1. To gather up and enlarge the geographic ideas gained in the previous grades.

2. To give, through the use of concrete material, reading, field trips, map study, etc., impressions of Eurasia and its peoples.

3. To emphasize the fact of adjustment to environment by bringing out the relation of such factors as soil, climate, mineral resources, and location to the life of the people.

4. To show, through a study of the products, trade routes, industries, etc., something of the interrelation and interdependence of nations.

5. To develop ability to organize data for the solution of a definite problem.

6. To gain facility in oral and written expression.

7. To engender a sympathetic understanding of the peoples differing from us in race, customs, ideals, and modes of living.

Method.—Interests characteristic of fifth-grade children have in a large measure, guided the selection of the subject-matter and the method of presentation (see outline of topics below).

Interest in the "why" has necessitated the emphasis on the causal relation. The children, while still retaining a fondness for the story of a people, no longer accept it unquestioningly. They constantly ask, "Why is it so?" "Why do one-half of Canton's people live in boats?" "Why is China so crowded when she has so much room?" "Why doesn't she work her coal mines?"

Interest demanding a sustained effort in following out the steps in the solution of a problem determines in general the method of approach to the study of the different countries. In such problems as, Why has Great Britain become the leading manufacturing country of the world? or Why is Japan becoming the Great Britain of the Far East? the children show a keen interest in organizing step by step the geographic factors that control the manner of life among the people, and that explain why their ambitions are like or unlike those of other nations. The problem method necessitates the extensive use of books and maps, hence considerable attention is given to teaching the children how to study these in gathering and organizing data.

Interest in collecting is strongly characteristic of this age of the child. This interest leads to the collecting of all sorts of material, such as pictures, maps, pamphlets, products, railroad and steamship folders, and excerpts from magazines and books. This interest is utilized as a determining motive for the pupil in compiling a book containing written exercises, maps, drawings, pictures, and clippings, that bear upon the problem studied.

In considering each of the leading countries of Eurasia, a preliminary survey is made of the people by means of pictures, lantern slides, museum material, accounts of those who have visited the country, and stories recalled from reading and earlier studies.

During the introductory lessons a problem is discovered or suggested, the solution of which gives a definite motive for con-

sidering the important geographic factors that influence the conditions of life of the country.

The method of procedure is shown in this type-study of the British Isles. In this unit of study the work centers about the question, Why do the British Isles lead the world in manufacturing and commerce? The physical wall map and Longmans' Atlas are studied for data upon the problem. Such questions as the following are given to develop the advantages or disadvantages due to location, climate, surface, and other natural resources: Where are the British Isles with reference to Europe? America? How does their location aid or hinder manufacturing? Commerce? Is the coast regular or irregular? Long or short? What are the possibilities for good harbors? Where are their harbors? Are there many rivers? Name them. How may they aid manufacturing? Commerce? Where are the highlands? Lowlands? What is probably the leading industry in these sections? What mineral resources aid manufacturing and commerce? What are some of the other conditions that favor these industries? Which of these conditions have been found in the British Isles? The topics "climate" and "rainfall" are developed in a similar way to show how these factors aid the life of the country. Reference to the appendix of the text brings out a comparison of the area and population with that of Illinois and the United States, and shows that though the area is less than twice that of Illinois the population is about half that of our whole country.

From the foregoing preliminary study such inferences as the following are made and written upon the board:

England is chiefly engaged in:

1. Manufacturing, because of its probable wealth in coal and iron and its lack of large farm lands.

2. Commerce, because its small area and great population make it necessary to import food and raw material.

3. Oceanic shipping, because it must reach other nations by sea; to do so its merchant marine and navy seek to hold first place upon the seas.

These and many similar inferences are made the basis for much reading and sifting of the text, the supplementary readers,

magazines, newspaper clippings, travelers' guides, and government leaflets. As each inference is verified and elaborated, it is summed up in a written exercise illustrated by drawings, maps, or charts.

The various manufacturing and allied industries are studied somewhat in detail. A trip to the Field Museum gives an opportunity to examine models of coal and iron mines and the series of models showing the methods of smelting iron ore. Drawings of the former are made, and a simple cardboard model is constructed of a blast furnace. A visit to the high-school foundry and machine shop shows the melting and molding, and the making of iron goods. A list is made of our iron, steel, and other metal wares bearing English trade-marks, including such things as knives, scissors, needles, pins, skates, hatchets, swords, buttons, screws, and rifles. Most of these come from the Birmingham district. Maps are made showing the relation of the coal areas to the iron and steel centers. England's rank among the coal and iron nations is found and its significance is discussed.

A part of Great Britain's iron and steel is used in making great ocean vessels, for the British Isles build almost one-half of the world's yearly output. Pictures of ships are collected; the shipbuilding industry of cities such as Belfast, Glasgow, and Edinburgh is studied. Longfellow's "The Building of the Ship," and Kipling's "The Ship that Found Herself," are read in the literature period, and a series of lessons on this topic are worked out in the English composition periods. (See "Course of Study in English.")

The study of the manufacturing of textiles in Great Britain is next taken up. Various commercial textiles have been studied in the handwork classes. The pupils have scoured, carded, spun, dyed, and woven wool into cloth. (See "Course of Study in Household Art.") With this concrete experience as a background, a study is made of the cotton, woolen, linen, and silk industries of the British Isles. While the manufacturing of each of these textiles is studied in detail, the following topics give the order of development:

English Colonies and Other Regions Producing the Raw Material
Location of Manufacturing Districts with Reference to Coal Regions; with Reference to Seaports

Important Cities Engaged in the Textile Industry
Kinds of Cloth Made
Amount of World's Supply Produced
Reasons for Britain's Supremacy in Textiles

This last topic is developed somewhat in detail in the history course in connection with the introduction of the Flemish weavers into England during the reign of Edward III, the extension of sheep farming following the period of the Black Death, when landholders, unable to cultivate or dispose of their lands, turned them into sheep pastures, and the growth of textile manufactures under the domestic, the guild, and the factory systems.

About eight lessons are devoted to the topic "The Textile Industry" at this time, but later in studying the industry in France, Germany, and Belgium the main points are again briefly reviewed.

In teaching the manufacture of china and porcelain, the method is similar to that described above. It may be added, however, that a trip is made to the school pottery department where the whole process is seen—mixing of the clays, casting, molding on potter's wheel, glazing, and firing in the kiln.

The last large topic is "Trade and Transportation." While England has numerous rivers and a close network of railroads and canals that aid her internal trade and facilitate the transportation of goods to the seaboard, these make but a small link in the chain of transoceanic routes with which Great Britain has girded the earth. Every yard of goods or pound of steel made for export must be transported overseas to her markets. In this connection, attention is called to her many good harbors, her facilities for loading and unloading, the Manchester ship canal, and the steamship routes to the markets throughout the world. The colonies are indicated on outline maps, and lists are made of the goods sold to the colonies and of those brought back to the mother-country to balance the trade.

Throughout the study of the British Isles, repeated reference is made to the problem, Why do the British Isles lead the world in commerce and manufacturing? The salient points bearing on the problem are now organized, and oral and written summaries are

made. Before completing the study of the British Isles, each child compiles a book in which he places his written exercises, drawings, maps, charts, pictures, magazine articles, newspaper clippings, and other data covering the essential points of interest.

In general, the other leading countries of Europe are studied in much the same way, though less time is given to each than to Great Britain. More time is given to the latter in order to develop a geographic background for the history course of the grade, and to organize in detail topics used repeatedly in the remainder of the course. Such topics as relations of climate and surface to industries, type industries, and requisites for good harbors, furnish data for the study of other countries. The outline follows.

EUROPE

(Time—2 Weeks)

Introductory:

a) Europe, home of ancient peoples: Greeks, Romans, Franks, Saxons, Britons, Vikings, etc.

b) Europe, home of our ancestors: English, Scotch, Irish, German, Scandinavian, French, Dutch, etc.

(Pictures of typical scenes in various countries)

Problem 1: In what ways is Europe fitted to be the home of so many peoples?

1. Location:
   - *a*) Forms western angle of the Eurasian triangle
   - *b*) Has been easy of access from older Asiatic countries
   - *c*) Greater part lies north of 40° north latitude

   (Compare with Chicago and the United States)
2. Relief:
   - *a*) Broad, low plain rising gradually from the Atlantic and Arctic oceans toward the east and south
   - *b*) Smaller plains in the south separated by high mountains
     - (1) Austro-Hungarian plain
     - (2) Plain of the lower Danube
     - (3) Plain of the Po in northern Italy
   - *c*) Mountains: chiefly in the south; general trend, east and west
     - (1) Caucasus
     - (2) Balkans
     - (3) Carpathians
     - (4) Alps
     - (5) Pyrenees
     - (6) Apennines
     - (7) Mountains in Scandinavian peninsula

3. Climate and rainfall:
   a) Cold climate of northern latitude modified by the prevailing westerlies, Gulf Stream, and proximity to the sea. The east and west trend of the mountains allows heat and moisture from the Atlantic to be carried far inland, and affords protection to southern countries from the cold north winds
   b) Drainage: many navigable rivers, due to good rainfall throughout and heavy precipitation on the high mountains
      (1) Many rivers of the northern plain
      (2) Four large rivers rising in the Alps
4. Coast line: great length and irregularity give many harbors. Most of the coast free from ice throughout the year, due to the westerlies and the Gulf Stream
5. Inferences as to resources due to these physical conditions:
   a) Great plain, hence farming regions
   b) Transportation facilities lead to commercial importance
   c) Water power and mineral resources lead to manufacturing
6. Many countries:
   a) Of Central and Northwestern Europe: United Kingdom, France, Switzerland, Germany, Holland, Belgium, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden
   b) Of Mediterranean region: Spain, Portugal, Italy, Greece, and Turkey
   c) Of Eastern Europe: Austria, Hungary, Balkan States, Russia

Europe is shown to be but the western peninsula of the great land mass of Eurasia, and in the study of its surface features it is considered in that relation. The topics "Climate" and "Rainfall" are discussed in relation to Europe at this time; later, at the beginning of the second semester, they are treated in the detailed study of Asia.

The physical barriers which have divided Europe politically have also differentiated the people to a great degree. The problems which the various countries have had to meet in the course of development have differed, and their solution has resulted in a variation of ideals, ambitions, and modes of living. There are practically as many languages as there are countries, and their industries and customs, while similar in some respects, are sufficiently different to give marked individuality to each.

Some of these European nations are world-powers, and the great international policies and dealings going on today among these nations are explained to a considerable degree by the physical geography of each: e.g., Belgium's invasion by Germany, Russia's

absorption of the smaller countries of the Russian plain and its persistent efforts to expand toward desirable coasts.

(Time—4 Weeks)

Problem II: Why do the British Isles lead the world in manufacturing and commerce?

1. Location—an Island Empire:
   a) Advantages for manufacturing
   b) Disadvantages
2. Surface features:
   a) Highlands and lower plains
   b) Many short swift rivers
   c) Irregular coast line
   d) Sunken river mouths (harbors)
   (Of what value is each to manufacturing?)
3. Climate and rainfall:
   a) Influence of westerly winds and Gulf Stream
   b) Compare with other countries in similar latitudes
   (In what way is climate an important factor?)
4. Size and population:
   a) Compare with areas of equal size in the United States
   (Area less than twice that of Illinois, but population nine times as great, hence many of its people must be engaged in manufacturing)
5. Inferences—a country engaged in:
   a) Manufacturing by reason of its lack of farm land and of its wealth in coal, iron, and water power. (Verify by text)
   b) Commerce by reason of its small area and dense population. Food and raw materials for factories must be imported. (Verify by text)
   c) Transoceanic navigation because its relation with other countries must be by sea, hence its navy and merchant marine should hold supremacy of the seas
6. Industries of the United Kingdom:
   a) Manufacturing
      (1) Iron and steel
         (*α*) Mining coal and iron
         (*β*) Shipbuilding
      (2) Textiles: cotton, wool, silk, linen. Centers in coal belt: Manchester, Leeds, Derby, Nottingham
      (3) China, porcelain, and glass
      (4) Leather
         (*α*) Cattle pastures: central plains, Scottish Highlands
         (*β*) Leather industries: Stafford, Leicester, London

(5) Various chemical industries
  (*a*) Soap-making: employs tallow and vegetable oils, especially olive and palm oils, hence, not only near coal fields, but near seaports which have a tropical and semitropical trade, e.g. Glasgow, London, Bristol
  (*β*) Paper-making: pure water of North Downs and importation of pulp and esparto into London support paper industry of south-eastern towns, while textile waste of cotton and linen is used in mills of coal districts of western parts
  (*γ*) Sugar-refining: in coal areas near ports connected with West Indies trade, e.g., Bristol, Greenock
  (*δ*) Food-preserving
    i. Dundee: marmalade
    ii. London: jams
    iii. Cheshire: cheese
    iv. Norwich: mustard from fenlands

b) Fishing
  (1) Deep-sea fisheries: cod, herring, and mackerel in the North Sea, Scotch waters, and English Channel
  (2) Shore fisheries: oyster, shrimp, and mussel about Yarmouth, Grimsby, Whitby, Aberdeen, Wick

c) Farming and dairying

d) Trade and transportation
  (1) Railroads radiate from London; thickest in industrial sections
  (2) Canals
    (*a*) Barge: Leeds and Liverpool, connecting Mersey and Humber
    (*β*) Ship: Caledonian, Manchester
  (3) Maritime transport
    (*a*) Coasting trade: from one British port to another
    (*β*) Continental trade: mainly from ports in east and south Reasons
    (*γ*) Transoceanic trade
  (4) Harbors: estuaries of Mersey, Clyde, Thames, Humber, Severn
  (5) Imports: cotton, wool, jute, hemp, dyes, foodstuffs
  (See government reports)
  (6) Exports: textiles, coal, iron, steel, and metal goods, boats

e) Markets
  (1) Colonies: India, Canada, Australia, South Africa, British Guiana, small islands, smaller possessions
    (*a*) Location
    (*β*) Advantages to Great Britain
    (*γ*) Advantages to colonies due to Great Britain's control
  (2) Other countries: United States, South America, Japan, China

ITALY

(Time—1 Week)

Problem III: Why are more than half the people of mountainous Italy farmers?

1. Location:
   - *a*) In middle of Mediterranean region
   - *b*) Within natural boundaries
   - *c*) Advantages comparable to those of Great Britain
   - *d*) Advantages as a link between Europe and Orient
2. Size and population: area twice that of New York but population four times as great; or area one-twelfth less and population one-fifth less than that of United Kingdom
3. Climate and rainfall:
   - *a*) Latitude; north of 40°; compared with latitude of Chicago
   - *b*) Mild climate. Why?
   - *c*) Rainfall; seasonal; winter in peninsula; spring and autumn in Northern Italy. (Rainfall greater than Spain's. Why?)
   - *d*) Snowfall and glaciers of Alps supply water for irrigation
4. Surface features:
   - *a*) Mountains: Alps, Apennines
   - *b*) Lowlands: Lombardy, coastal plains
   - *c*) Rivers: Po, Arno, Tiber. (Value for water power)
5. Inferences:
   - *a*) Country suited to agriculture
     - (1) Climate allows temperate and tropical crops
     - (2) Rainfall adequate in great part of area
     - (3) Snows and glaciers aid irrigation
     - (4) Tracts tillable, small but fertile
     - (5) Variety of crops due to great range of temperature

     (Each of the foregoing points verified by reference to the texts)
   - *b*) Country poor in manufacturing
     - (1) Lacks iron and minerals in commercial quantities. Some iron found in island of Elba
     - (2) Lacks coal beds. Water power and electricity used. Why possible?
     - (3) Manufactured products limited:
       - (α) To industries not requiring fuel for power (reeling and throwing of silk fiber)
       - (β) To making wines
       - (γ) To refining olive oil (quality of first rank)
       - (δ) To making macaroni and cheese
       - (ϵ) To making glassware, mosaics, marbles
   - *c*) Country favorable to commerce
     - (1) Has good harbors: Venice, Genoa, Naples, Palermo, Brindisi, Messina, Catania, Leghorn

(2) Has all-rail route to northern countries. Alpine tunnels: Mt. Cenis, St. Gothard, Simplon. Trunk lines through peninsula to Brindisi connect with steamships via Suez (shortest route to Orient)
(3) Has steamship lines
(4) Location between Asiatic and Atlantic commerce

d) Country with large population
(1) In cities: Naples, Rome, Florence, Venice, Genoa
(2) In rural districts: peasant life

The following are typical of the problems considered in studying other countries of Europe:

What makes Germany "the armed camp of Europe" and the commercial rival of the United Kingdom? (Time—2 weeks.)

Why has Belgium been called "the workshop of Europe"? (Time—3 lessons.)

What makes Holland the dairy farm of Great Britain? (Time—2 lessons.)

Why is Switzerland the "playground of all nations but the workshop of the Swiss"? (Time—2 lessons.)

How have the mountains of Norway determined the industries of the country? (Time—3 lessons.)

What geographic conditions prevent Spain from being a leading nation of Europe? (Time—1 week.)

ASIA

Introduction.—Asia is too large and the geographic conditions are too varied and too complex to make it possible for a fifth grade to study this continent in a thorough way. The teacher's aim is to direct the children's study toward certain typical activities of the people of different regions which are dominated by such geographic influences as climate, soil, resources, and accessibility to markets. In the study of North America in the fourth grade, and of Europe in the first semester of the fifth, training has been given in map-reading sufficient to enable the class to gain from physical wall maps and the maps of the atlas some information about the important great physical regions of Asia: the extension across the north of the Russian plain; the central highland stretching from Asia Minor to the southeastern part of the continent and culminating in the lofty Himalayas; the great desert belt; and the lower lands sloping down to the sea on the east and south.

The large rivers are seen to flow out from the central highland toward the north, east, and south. This map-study is supplemented by rapid modeling in the sand-pan and "chalk-modeling" on the blackboard. This meager notion of the great topographic features is amplified by what constitutes the main work of the course—a study of what the peoples in these several regions are doing. The locations of only the most important countries, cities, water bodies, and mountain systems are memorized. Maps are drawn only in the study of China, India, and Japan.

There is considerable supplementary reading available for the study of China, Japan, and India (see list below.) It offers the teacher an opportunity to give her class additional training in methods of study, especially if the topic-investigation and report plan is used.

Subject-Matter and Methods.—

SIBERIA, THE NORTHERN PLAIN

Siberia is the extension of the plain of Russia in Europe (physical and vegetation maps are the basis of this part of the study). It has three broad zones, extending east and west: (1) the bleak, frozen tundra in the north, (2) the forest region, and (3) the steppes. Through reading such descriptions as are found in Herbertson's *Asia* and Brehm's *From North Pole to Equator* the children get pictures of typical conditions in these three zones. The center of interest is the people, their manners and customs and how they get their living. Allen's chapter on *A Trip on the Trans-Siberian Railroad* gives much information about ways in which the people live, and at the same time some idea of the efforts Russia is making to develop the large area through improvements in transportation. Other important topics are: the forests and furs, our country as a market, dairying, wheat raising, markets, the future of the country. In assigning reference reading on Siberia to children (see list), special care is used to select passages that are not too difficult, because most of the books on this subject were written for mature students. Fewer pictures of Siberia are available than of the other large countries of Asia. About two weeks is given to the study of Russia in Asia.

THE HIGHLAND REGION

By studying the physical, rainfall, vegetation, and population maps in Longmans' Atlas, the children are taught to see the relation between the sparcity of population and the dominant geographic conditions: a high, cold desert in the east and a somewhat lower, warmer desert in the west. These conditions largely determine how the people live. The children are able to recall much of what they learned in the second grade about the shepherd peoples. The teacher selects from the school collection pictures of typical scenes, which serve to focus the attention upon the geographic controls. These pictures are of desert landscapes, oases and their products, caravans, herds, and the people themselves. There is considerable reference reading that may be assigned (see list), but it must be chosen according to the children's ability.

Rug-making is taken up as a typical industry. It is of great assistance to the teacher to have a dealer in oriental rugs talk to the class. This region becomes more familiar to the children when in the history periods they study the mediaeval routes across Asia.

Chapters in Carpenter's *Asia*, Allen's *Asia*, and Herbertson's *Asia* are used for the children's reading at home or in class. Two weeks are given to this topic.

CHINA

After a preliminary study of physical maps of Asia and of China, and reference to tables of comparative area and population, the class is in possession of facts regarding the location of China, its size, topography, range of latitude, climate, and density of population.

The following topics are studied through the use of the textbook, supplementary readers, pictures, and museum material:

1. Chinese farms and farmers:
   a) Small farms: intensive cultivation
   b) Products: millet, rice, other grains, silk, tea, opium, cotton
2. Rice culture:
   a) Contrast and comparison with rice culture in the United States
   b) Planting, flooding, transplanting, harvesting, threshing. Why mostly without aid of machinery?
   c) Markets, wages, standards of living

3. Tea culture in China:
   a) Picking, drying, rolling, marketing
4. The great rivers:
   a) Transportation
   b) Flooded lowlands
5. Laborious ways of doing things in China:
   a) Reasons
   b) Changes
6. Dress of poor and of rich
7. Home life
8. Schools
9. Mineral resources:
   a) Enormous resources, but not used. Why?
   b) What changes will take place in China when she makes use of her minerals, especially coal and iron?
10. Long isolation of China: effects. Told by teacher
11. Changes now taking place: future. Discussion by teacher and class

Throughout the study of China the children collect such material as bears upon the subject: pictures from magazines, photographs and postal-card pictures, Chinese clothing, implements, and ornaments. They use the material in the notebooks and in the exhibition and morning exercise which occur at the end. For the exercise charts and drawings are prepared showing significant facts with regard to China.

Four weeks are given to the study of China.

INDIA

India is "away around the earth on the other side." An examination of latitudes shows that India is much farther south than the United States, and hence much warmer. A traced map of India laid upon a map of the United States of the same scale gives an idea of the relative size, about half that of our country.

The physical map shows the mountain region, the river plain, and the plateau in the south bordered by a narrow coastal plain. The population map shows that the greatest density is in the Ganges plain. This region is at the foot of the mountains, where the rivers have deposited, and continue to drop, material, resulting in great fertility. Moreover, the rainfall map shows heavy precipitation. Consequently this is a region of great productivity and

hence of dense population. But this part of the country is overpopulated, and so a large proportion of the people are very poor, although a few are very rich.

Through the use of pictures and descriptions a few of the many possible topics in the geography of India are studied. To a large extent, the method is one of class discussion and the raising of questions which the children are left to solve in their study period by reading in their supplementary readers and other books, which the teacher has selected from the school library. Topic-study and recitation are encouraged. Notebooks are kept in which are preserved written papers, pictures, drawings, and clippings pertaining to India. At the close of the study what has been learned and what has been collected are organized to present to other classes in the morning exercise period.

The following topics are considered in addition to those above:

(Time—4 weeks)

1. Himalaya Mountains
   a) Height
   b) Passes
   c) Influence on rainfall and climate of India.
2. Deccan plateau
3. Agricultural products
   a) Wheat, millet, rice, cotton, tea
   b) Markets
4. Tea
   a) Culture
   b) Preparation for market
5. India under British rule
6. The Ganges River
7. Some wonderful buildings in India
8. Caste
9. Homes

JAPAN

Japan is an island empire stretching from (map used) 22 degrees to 51 degrees; or farther north and farther south than the United States. The climate, therefore, ranges from tropical in the south to cold in the north. The rainfall (map used) is abundant. The islands are mountainous, hence much of the land is not good for agriculture. Comparison of Japan with the United States and certain states in area and population (tables used).

The following are topics used for class and individual study in the fifth grade:

1. The awakening of Japan
2. Intensive-farming methods
3. Beautiful articles made by Japanese
4. The silk industry
5. Expansion of Japan

There is available much suitable reading-material (see list) as well as excellent pictures. The keeping of a Japan scrapbook is an important project in this grade. (Time—3 weeks.)

Standards of attainment.—In the fifth grade progress is made:

1. In reading map symbols.
2. In interpreting geographic conditions from physical maps.
3. In collecting and organizing material for a definite problem.
4. In using indexes and tables of contents of books.
5. In oral and written expression.
6. In seeing something of the interdependence of nations.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Children's texts:

Brigham and McFarlane, *Essentials of Geography*, Book II
Longmans, *New School Atlas*

Supplementary readers:

Nellie B. Allen, *Industrial Studies of Europe*
———, *Industrial Studies of Asia*
Lydie R. Blaich, *Three Industrial Nations*
Frank G. Carpenter, *Europe*
H. L. Burrows, *The Story of English Industry and Trade*
Chamberlain, *The Continents and Their People*
Huntington, *Asia—A Geography Reader*

Texts for teachers (chapters and shorter passages may be selected for children's use):

T. Alford Smith, *A Geography of Europe*
Redway, *Commercial Geography*
———, *Commercial and Industrial Geography*
Keller and Bishop, *Commercial and Industrial Geography*
Mills, *International Geography*
H. B. George, *The Relation of Geography and History*
Clive Day, *A History of Commerce*
L. W. Lyde, *Man in Many Lands*
J. B. Reynolds, *Europe*
J. Partsch, *Central Europe*

Morley A. Davies, *The British Isles*
L. W. Lyde, *The British Empire*
———, *The British Isles*
Frank Fox, *Peeps at Many Lands: the British Empire*
H. J. Macklinder, *Britain and British Seas*
Herbertson, *In and about Our Islands*
U. T. Fisher, *Industrial Rivers of the United Kingdom*
Frederick Mort, *The British Isles*
Claston, *Journeys in Industrial England*
Arthur O. Cook, *A Visit to a Cotton Mill*
M. A. Lane, *Toward the Rising Sun*
Ross, *The Changing Chinese*
Smith, *Village Life in China*
Chamberlain, *Asia*
King, *Farmers of Forty Centuries*
Carpenter, *How the World Is Fed*
———, *How the World Is Clothed*
Smith, *Industrial and Commercial Geography*
Herbertson, *Man and His Work*
Toothaker, *Commercial Raw Products*
Clement, *Handbook of Modern Japan*
Compton, *Japanese Life in Town and Country*
———, *Indian Life in Town and Country*
Brehm, *From North Pole to Equator*
Sven Hedin, *Through Asia*
———, *Central Asia and Thibet*
Holdich, *India*
Reclus, *Earth and Its Inhabitants*
Herbertson, *Asia*
Gouse, *Japanese Art*
Chamberlain, *Things Japanese*
Kennon, *Tent Life in Siberia*
Hammond, *Cotton Culture and the Cotton Trade*
Bassett, *The Story of Wool*
Taine, *Journeys through France*
Hare, *France*
C. R. Spencer, *Waterways of Germany*
Schierbrand, *Germany*
Wallace, *Russia*
Seebohn, *Siberia*
Tolstoi, *What to Do*
Henry Norman, *All the Russias*
Grant Allen, *Florence; Venice; Rome*
Du Chaillu, *The Land of the Long Night*

Time.—In Grade 5 one-half hour daily is given to the study of geography.

TIME SCHEDULE FOR FIFTH-GRADE GEOGRAPHY

Europe (general geography of)	2	weeks
British Isles	4	"
Germany	2	"
France	2	"
Austria-Hungary	1	week
Balkan States	1	"
Russia	2	weeks
Sweden, Norway, Switzerland	1	week
Belgium, Holland, Denmark	1	"
Spain, Portugal	1	"
Italy	1	"
Asia (general geography of)	2	weeks
Siberia	2	"
The Highland Region	2	"
China	4	"
India	4	"
Japan	3	"

INDIVIDUALIZING PROBLEMS FOR PUPILS

L. W. MAYBERRY
Wichita, Kansas

Teachers have long recognized the necessity for drill as a teaching process. They have quite generally agreed that the object is "to reduce responses of thought and action to an automatic basis"; that there should be a motive for drill; that there should be a maximum of attention in repetition; that the attention may be held by varying the procedure or by limiting the time for doing the task; and that there should be increasing intervals of time between repetitions.

With all these characteristics of good drill in mind good teachers still find that an observance of these criteria does not reach individual needs. They know that there are in the elementary schools certain fundamentals which every pupil should master. They know that these fundamentals are found in spelling, reading, and language as well as in arithmetic. They know that the reaction of the pupil to these fundamental facts presented must become automatic. They also know that after every quality of good drill has been utilized, it becomes necessary to individualize each pupil's problems before success is achieved.

If something can be done to individualize the responses which are to become automatic, less class and individual drill will be necessary. If the teacher will plan to check up the individual achievement of each pupil on the facts presented for drill and to segregate these failures about once each week the results will be a surprise to most teachers. When the pupil knows what *his* particular problem is, and when he knows that his teacher and classmates know it, he will be more inclined to attack and solve *his* problem.

The following are typical problems which may be individualized for the pupils in any schoolroom: stating combinations and separations of numbers up to twenty, stating products involved in the

multiplication tables, stating the blends presented for mastery in phonic work, pronouncing correctly words taught, spelling correctly words taught, properly filling blanks in teaching correct usages and punctuation. A record of results secured from each pupil at stated intervals may be kept on the blackboard, or on a large record sheet used for the guidance of both teacher and pupils. In making tests on achievement a random selection should be made from all the facts taught for a half-year, in order to determine whether the pupils are retaining their ability to respond quickly to the facts taught.

In Tables I and II are given typical forms for recording the facts on which individual pupils failed.

TABLE I

INDIVIDUAL FAILURES IN SOUNDING BLENDS

Pupil	October 10		October 17		October 24		October 31	
George	ban	hot	bake	rake	boat	.....	dock	.....
Mary	pot	.....	cake	hit	.....	.....	lace	float
Alice	pan	lot	rock	pat	coat	flit	.....	.....
Frank	.....	.....	rice	mice	make	.....	frock	face

TABLE II

INDIVIDUAL FAILURES ON COMBINATIONS

Pupil	December 4				December 10			December 18		December 26	
Lee	3	6	.....	7	6	.....	.....	8	.....	7	.....
	4	2	.....	4	6	.....	.....	2	.....	5	.....
Rena	6	8	.....	.....	4	9	8	9	10	8	9
	4	2	.....	.....	3	2	5	3	2	4	4
Grace	9	.....	.....	.....	7	8	.....	7	8	9	7
	3	.....	.....	.....	4	4	.....	5	3	4	2
John	5	2	6	5	7	6	4	9	8	9	.....
	4	3	2	3	5	5	4	1	3	2	.....

In order to test this theory the pupils of ten or twelve second grades were tested, in October, in their ability in combinations. At the same time as many third-grade rooms were tested in their ability accurately to write as many products as they could in one minute. After these room records were secured five second-grade teachers volunteered to check up their pupils on individual failures

in combinations each week, and five third-grade teachers agreed to do likewise on individual failures in multiplication tables, or products.

Below is a copy of the letter sent to the teachers who were attempting this checking method in number work:

DEAR MISS BLANK:

I am inclosing a record sheet on which you have agreed to make ten weekly records of pupil-errors on tables or combinations as far as you have taught them. Each time the record is taken you should test each pupil orally or in writing on products *or* combinations ranging from the 2's through the last table taught. Keep the results of each test on the board or on a chart constantly before the pupils so that they may be induced to rectify errors made by studying the products or combinations on which they failed.

Please record the date for each record, and the errors made by each pupil. Twenty or thirty combinations or as many indicated products might be copied by each pupil from your work on the board. You might pass around the room to see that all are ready and then have pupils write answers *only*. Collect same and record data. The *essential* thing is that *each* pupil work to correct the errors that *he* made in the test.

Very truly,

L. W. MAYBERRY, *Superintendent*

About January 15, the same rooms in which these number tests were given in October were again tested to ascertain the progress made in each room and the relative progress made under the ordinary method of teaching and the checking-up method. To designate the two groups, we shall call the rooms in which the pupils' individual failures were regularly checked the "checked" rooms, and the others "not checked."

We show in Tables III, IV, V, and VI the achievements of the two groups in both second and third grades on the average number of answers *correct*, and not the average number of attempts. The time allowed was one minute.

Judging from the evidences before us, it appears that the "checked" rooms in Second A work gained 41 per cent and the "not checked" rooms gained 18 per cent in achievement. The "checked" rooms in Second A work gained 60 per cent after ten weeks' work and the "not checked" Second A rooms gained 36 per cent.

TABLE III

Room	A Classes		B Classes	
	October	January	October	January
Checked Rooms—Second Grades				
Room 1	9.9	14.4	7.56	13.8
Room 2	11.7	16.6	7.36	10.4
Room 3	11.1	15.0	8.65	14.4
Room 4	.....	.....	6.73	10.1
Average	10.9	15.4	7.6	12.2
Not Checked—Second Grades				
Room 1	11.0	11.7	7.3	11.2
Room 2	.....	.....	10.5	13.1
Room 3	.....	.....	7.0	11.0
Room 4	10.8	14.9	7.6	11.2
Room 5	9.7	12.0	8.9	11.4
Room 6	11.0	12.6	8.0	10.8
Room 7	11.0	11.1	8.0	10.2
Room 8	8.5	10.6	7.0	8.1
Average	10.3	12.1	8.0	10.9

TABLE IV

Groups	Second A Classes			Second B Classes		
	October	January	Percentage of Gain	October	January	Percentage of Gain
Checked rooms	10.9	15.4	41	7.6	12.2	60
Not checked	10.3	12.1	18	8.0	10.9	36

TABLE V

Room	A Classes		B Classes	
	October	January	October	January
Checked Rooms—Third Grades				
Room 1	8.6	12.3	5.7	8.5
Room 2	12.6	19.1	8.0	15.2
Room 3	8.0	19.6	.....	.....
Room 4	6.8	15.9	3.6	13.5
Room 5	11.0	11.9	6.8	12.5
Average	9.4	15.7	6.0	12.4

TABLE V—*Continued*

NOT CHECKED—THIRD GRADES

Room 1	6.6	6.0	4.0	5.4
Room 2	12.0	13.0	9.0	9.8
Room 3	9.0	9.1	6.7	6.3
Room 4	8.5	9.0	7.3	7.8
Room 5	.....	.....	5.6	10.9
Average	9.0	9.2	6.5	8.0

TABLE VI

GROUP	THIRD A CLASSES			THIRD B CLASSES		
	October	January	Percentage of Gain	October	January	Percentage of Gain
Checked rooms	9.4	15.7	67	6.0	12.4	106
Not checked	9.0	9.2	3	6.5	8.0	23

In the "checked" rooms on Third A work the pupils gained 67 per cent and in the "not checked" rooms the gain was less than 3 per cent. The "checked" rooms in Third B work showed a gain of 106 per cent while the "not checked" rooms showed a gain of 23 per cent.

While the number of rooms tested in each grade and class is not sufficient for an absolute conclusion, it is sufficient to suggest very strongly that the checking up of each pupil in *his* individual task gets better results than a failure to do so. Wherever the pupils are held for definite responses, usually secured through drill, this individualizing of the problem will secure excellent results.

TEACHING READING IN VINCENNES, INDIANA

E. O. MAPLE
Superintendent of Schools, Vincennes, Indiana

In September, 1916, we changed our purpose and method in teaching reading in all the grades in the Vincennes city schools. The type of recitation formerly used, wherein each pupil was given a chance to stand and read his paragraph "for practice in expression," is no longer seen in our schools. The principles and methods determining the new course in reading are about as follows:

1. Reading is extensive rather than intensive.

2. Pupils read for content rather than for practice.

3. Material is selected for its present value and interest to pupils.

4. Literature requiring adult interpretation and attracting only adult attention is not presented to children.

5. Pupils are not called upon to read orally unless they have something worth reading to a group wanting to hear it. That is, pupils do not read for practice. They read to express thought to those who do not have access to the same material. Supplementary readers are not furnished in sets. Each pupil may have a different book.

6. Pupils need training in listening as well as in expression, and they give better attention to the reading of new material. The reader uses better expression when reading to an attentive audience than to an audience whose faces are thrust in a book, looking for mistakes of the reader.

7. In the recitation an opportunity is given the pupil to read, usually silently, while the teacher observes the speed and later checks up the success in interpretation.

The value of some school experiments is best determined by immediate results. This is true in teaching reading. If the purpose is to encourage rapid and extensive reading and to develop

a taste for good books, the teacher may measure success by how and what the children read.

In the old course of study there was outlined for the first eight grades 3,270 pages of reading material. On the basis of the rate used in the report of the Cleveland Survey (a pupil should read from 30 to 40 pages per hour) all of the assigned reading could have been done in about 100 hours. In the eight years, 1,440 hours were used in the recitations, including time for preparation. That is, in the eight years 1,440 hours were used in reading what should have been read in 100 hours. Or the pupils should have read 43,200 pages instead of 3,270.

Following the schedule of time used, the first grade could have read all assigned to the grade in $2\frac{1}{2}$ weeks, the second in 8, the third in $8\frac{1}{2}$, the fourth in 6, the fifth in $5\frac{1}{2}$, the sixth in 4, the seventh in 5, and the eighth in $4\frac{1}{2}$. Or all of the material covered in eight years could have been read in 44 weeks. It is interesting to note that, after the first year, the longer a pupil remained in school the slower he would read.

To correct this difficulty our teachers experimented in various ways and finally agreed upon the plan now in operation. Thus far the results have been better than we expected.

As we began using the present methods in September, 1916, it will be of interest to compare the report of our school librarian of January, 1917, after the method had been in use four months, with the report in January, 1916. The 1917 report, when compared with that of 1916, shows an increase in non-fiction read by pupils of 110 per cent and of the juvenile fiction of 101 per cent.

A questionnaire was sent to all the teachers as follows: "Give the percentage of increase or decrease over that of previous years in time used for oral reading in your grade; in silent reading; in number of pages covered; in amount of reading done outside of school." The teachers were asked to report on the attitude of the pupils toward reading and the reading recitation, and to mention any difficulties and defects observed in the plan.

All but three teachers of the first grade reported an increase in the *amount* of oral reading of from 15 per cent to 150 per cent; all reported an increase of from 15 per cent to 100 per cent in the

amount of silent reading, an increase of 50 per cent to 150 per cent in number of pages covered, and a noticeable increase in the desire to read books outside of school.

All second- and third-grade teachers reported a decrease in the *time* used in oral reading and an increase of 100 per cent to 300 per cent in the *time* used for silent reading, number of pages covered, and amount of reading outside of school.

These reports all show that in the upper grades much less time is used for oral reading and that there is a marvelous increase in the amount of material read silently and out of school. Teachers report that pupils read everything available and continually add their own contributions to that furnished by the teacher. And in answer to my question, "What are the defects in the plan?" all teachers gave one and only one answer, "Lack of material."

Perhaps the best way to show the attitude of the pupils to the reading work would be to quote from a number of the teachers. Without an exception the opinion of the teachers is expressed as follows: "There is a great deal more interest shown." "The children take my books home and loan their books to other pupils. They want to read books related to their school work." "They love reading." "Pupils ask for new material daily." "This is my first year in Vincennes, but I can see that the interest in reading seems to grow daily, and the amount of good material they are able to cover and to do it well is astonishing." Every teacher states that the pupils show an increased interest in reading and better judgment in selecting material. We are all convinced that much time has been wasted in years past in the reading recitation, and that even better results will be possible in the future.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

I. SUMMARY OF RECENT LITERATURE IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

FRANK N. FREEMAN
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This article presents a brief review of the books on educational psychology which have appeared during the past two years. Since this is the first of a projected series of annual reviews it will be somewhat more extensive with reference to the period which is covered, and somewhat less detailed than the subsequent articles. The fact that many of the books which are to be reviewed have already been noticed individually in previous issues of this *Journal* will necessitate a great deal of repetition and will make it desirable to dwell upon the general aspects and significance of the literature rather than upon the details of its content.

A. THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE SCHOOL SUBJECTS

It is not always clear what is to be included within the realm of educational psychology. The field is not always clearly marked off from general psychology on the one hand and from the practical interests which are affected by the various applications of the science on the other. There are investigations carried on in laboratories devoted to pure psychology which have a bearing on the problems of education. Psychologists are more and more turning their attention to problems of learning and of mental tests. At the other extreme we have discussions of vocational psychology, which might be classified with industrial education. Among the various applications of psychology to education, some more and some less direct, one of the most specific is the psychology of the learning process in the school subjects.

Experimental investigation of the learning process in the school subjects proceeds much more slowly than does the collection of

statistics by means of tests. The latter attempts only to measure the child's attainment, while the former attempts to explain how the learner attains the result he does by an analysis of his mental process. It is not surprising, therefore, that in the face of the vast literature on tests we have to report only two extensive laboratory studies.

1. The first of these is Ayer's study of drawing.[1] Previous studies of drawing have consisted chiefly in the collection of a large number of specimens for the purpose of exhibiting the development in the child or the race, or for the determination of individual differences in ability. Ayer gives in his historical introduction a full account of these previous studies. His own study has attempted to distinguish different kinds of drawing ability and to find out its bearing on the ability of the pupil in the science work of the school. Ayer studied two distinct kinds of drawing, the ordinary pictorial representation, which is designed to look like the object, and the sketch or diagram, which is designed to present abstractly the relations of the parts of the object. These two kinds of drawing are different in the kind of ability they require and in their value for the work in science, and this study has made a contribution in its detailed investigation of their nature and application.

2. Reading is one of the school subjects upon which a considerable amount of experimental effort has been expended. The detailed study of the eye-movements in reading, which was begun by Erdmann and Dodge and continued by Huey and Dearborn, has been further extended by Schmidt.[2] The previous studies had been made upon a relatively small number of persons and almost entirely upon adults. Schmidt, by some elaboration of the photographic technique, obtained records of certain details of the eye-movements, which had not been previously recorded, and, by the inclusion of a large number of subjects, was enabled to contribute to our knowledge of individual and age differences. He

[1] *The Psychology of Drawing.* By F. C. Ayer. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1916. Pp. 186.

[2] *An Experimental Study in the Psychology of Reading.* By W. A. Schmidt. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1917. Pp. 126.

found the individual differences to be surprisingly large in comparison with the differences between the age groups, indicating that a child may form his eye-movement habits earlier than we have been accustomed to believe. The further significance of the individual differences in eye-movements and the possibility of overcoming defective types of movement has been given additional investigation in the same laboratory, but the results have not yet been published.

3. One of the school subjects which has proved difficult of experimental study, possibly because it is so largely internal in character and is not so fully represented by outward movements as are drawing, reading, and writing, is number. Nevertheless a great many experiments have been made on this subject, and these are summarized in considerable detail by Howell,[1] who has added some pedagogical studies of his own. Practically all of the experimental work in number has concerned itself with the simpler elements of the number process, such as counting, the perception of the number of objects in a group, or number forms. There has been some study of the methods of lightning calculators, but little analysis of the means by which ordinary persons carry on the arithmetic or other mathematical processes. The inherent difficulties in the way of such a study in the case of children are apparent. Some slight beginnings have been made by following up errors or particularly slow performances, and this method promises returns. But thus far the chief work with the more complicated number processes has been by means of tests, and these have not been the most successful.

4. In addition to such monographs as these upon the psychology of single school subjects, this type of educational psychology has been represented recently by two books which present a systematic discussion of a whole group of subjects, the first dealing with the high school and the second with the elementary school. Judd's *Psychology of High-School Subjects*[2] is a pioneer both in the fact

[1] *A Foundational Study in the Pedagogy of Arithmetic.* By H. B. Howell. New York: Macmillan, 1914, Pp. 328.

[2] *The Psychology of High-School Subjects.* By C. H. Judd. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. 515.

that it applies educational psychology to the individual problems presented by the school subjects, and in the fact that its analysis of the particular high-school subjects is very largely original. There has been very little experimental study of the psychology of high-school mathematics, science, language, etc., as there has been of some of the elementary-school subjects. The author of this book, however, has availed himself of the results of previous scientific investigation and has applied them to the particular problems before him. For example, the psychology of space and of number has been used to serve as a background for the discussion of the particular problems of mathematics, and the psychology of language serves as an introduction to the account of English and the foreign languages. But the book is by no means simply an application of these general disciplines in a theoretical fashion. It gets to grips with the actual problems which face the teacher by facing the situation which is presented from the point of view of general administration and of teaching. The teaching problems, however, become, as they properly should to start out with, learning problems. The diversities in teaching methods have been observed and analyzed in order to determine what diversities in methods of learning they represent. This puts the teaching problem on its correct psychological basis, and the service of this book is that it has done this for the high school. Its aim has not been to settle all the problems of method, but it has recast these problems into forms which at least advance them far toward their solution.

5. Freeman's *The Psychology of the Common Branches*[1] had much more experimental work upon which to base its psychological analysis than did the book just mentioned. Where such previous study was not available, as was the case with the greater part of the field, the same method had to be used as with the high-school subjects. The elementary subjects which are discussed are handwriting, drawing, reading, spelling, geography, history, mathematics, and science.

[1] *The Psychology of the Common Branches.* By Frank N. Freeman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 275.

B. ECONOMY IN MENTAL WORK

There are economical and uneconomical ways of working in general, in addition to the better or poorer methods of studying particular subjects, and it is the principles of general mental economy which constitute the subject of three recent books, by G. M. Whipple,[1] H. D. Kitson,[2] and G. V. N. Dearborn.[3] The purpose of these three books is the same, but they differ largely in character and form. Whipple's little book is a condensed manual of specific rules, each followed by a paragraph of explanation and illustration. For instance, Rule 8 is as follows: "*Use various devices to compel yourself to think over your work.*" These rules are clear applications of principles which have been established by experiment. There are 38 rules in all. The conciseness, clearness, and soundness of this brief manual makes it very usable.

Kitson's book is a fuller exposition, couched in equally simple language, of the principles of economical study. It is not formulated in a set of rules, but does contain a large number of very specific directions. It covers a somewhat larger range of topics than does Whipple's book, as, for example, how to conduct one's self in a recitation. Kitson also draws somewhat more upon his individual experience for the foundation of his principles and rules, but he makes use of the available results of experiment. The book is clearly organized and does not require a knowledge of technical psychological terms for its understanding.

Dearborn's manual, in contrast to the two just mentioned, is not written in simple, non-technical language. It abounds in such terms as *stheneuphoric index*, and these not introduced with any ceremony whatever, but plumped at you without warning. It is full, moreover, of long digressions, not very pertinent to the subject under discussion. There is a much larger proportion of personal opinion in it than in the other two. If one is disposed

[1] *How to Study Effectively.* By G. M. Whipple. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1916. Pp. 44.

[2] *How to Use Your Mind.* By H. D. Kitson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1916. Pp. 215.

[3] *How to Learn Easily.* By G. V. N. Dearborn. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1916. Pp. 227.

to be patient at the verbiage and the wandering style, a great many useful suggestions can be picked out; but this is no book to put into the hands of the inexperienced student.

C. TRANSFER OF TRAINING

Three monographs have recently appeared in the *Educational Psychology Monographs*, all of which describe results of experiments which give clear evidence of the presence of transfer of training, or "formal discipline." Those who have too hastily accepted some of the conclusions from earlier investigations—even though a careful examination of the results of almost all of them would have shown that there is transfer—will have to revise their theory and practice if they are to harmonize with the facts as scientifically determined. There is still room for a great many investigations to reveal how transfer takes place and how it can be brought about, but it would be pedantry to demand any further proof that it exists. Our general view of the mind must be that it is composed of closely interrelated, not of highly specialized, functions. The significance of these new investigations is heightened by the fact that two of them recorded regular classroom activities under classroom conditions, and that one of them was made by an investigator who came to the study with the expectation of finding no transfer.

The first study, by Rugg,[1] tested the effect of a semester's study of descriptive geometry by engineering students upon their ability in tests with "geometrical, quasi-geometrical, and non-geometrical" elements. The geometrical tests consisted in imaging and analyzing geometrical forms; the quasi-geometrical tests consisted in turning words into letters composed of a straight-line alphabet; and the non-geometrical test consisted in arithmetic problems performed mentally. There were 413 training subjects and 87 control subjects. The training group made the most gain in all the tests, though their superiority was greater in the tests most like the training. By an analysis of the results the author concludes that the gain was due to the course in geometry, and not to other engineering studies.

[1] *The Experimental Determination of Mental Discipline in School Studies.* By H. O. Rugg. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1916. Pp. 132.

The other school experiment was made by Miss Hewins.[1] This time the subjects were high-school students, and the ability studied was observation. The training consisted in the observation of botanical specimens and their description or representation by drawing. The tests were in part like the training, and in part observation of nonsense syllables and geometrical figures. In both kinds of material the training group, which was chosen on the basis of careful preliminary testing and was slightly inferior to the check group, made more improvement than their companions.

The third experiment, by Wang,[2] is significant because of the distinction it makes between processes which show different amounts of transfer in different mental processes, and because of its account of the method of transfer. It was found that training in discriminating length of lines improved only slightly discrimination in pitch, color, and size, and that the transfer which did take place was due to a lengthening of the time taken for the judgment. The subjects, however, were not aware of the cause of their improvement. More complicated perceptual processes, as selecting syllables which contained certain letters, showed greater transfer.

D. MENTAL TESTS

Two recent books deal with the Binet-Simon scale.[3] Melville's manual presents an elaborate standardization of the method of giving the 1911 series, including the order of giving the tests and the determination of the range of testing. No new tests are given, but the methods which are prescribed are the outgrowth of rather extensive experience in giving the Binet tests. The book is printed in such a way as to facilitate the rather complicated order of giving the tests which is advised.

Terman's book presents the results of the extensive Stanford revision of the Binet scale, and gives a full account of the principles

[1] *The Doctrine of Formal Discipline in the Light of Experimental Investigation.* By Nellie P. Hewins. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1916. Pp. 120.

[2] *The General Value of Visual Sense Training in Children.* By Chang Ping Wang. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1916. Pp. 85.

[3] *Standard Method of Testing Juvenile Mentality.* By Norbert J. Melville. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1917. Pp. xi+140; *The Measurement of Intelligence.* By L. M. Terman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 362.

underlying it and detailed directions for giving each test. Many new and carefully standardized tests have been added, which extend the usefulness of the scale, particularly for the years from twelve upward, in which the old Binet scale is of little use. There has also been a rearrangement of the old tests on the basis of the results from 1,000 children, and the method of scoring has been refined. All these changes make the scale a more precise instrument.

The Yerkes-Bridges point scale[1] is another type of modification of the Binet material. In the Binet scale the tests are grouped so as to represent the ability of children at various ages, and a child's "mental age" is determined by the age groups which he can pass. In the point scale, on the other hand, a child's score is obtained by giving him so many points for each test which he passes, and then interpreting the significance of his total score in points by comparing it with norms obtained from the examination of a large number of children. A number of advantages are claimed for this method of procedure, but the differences between the two scales are not so fundamental as the authors of the point scale maintain, and the choice between them will have to depend on further impartial trial.

Pintner and Paterson, who have already published a number of articles upon the standardization of tests, have now prepared a scale of performance tests.[2] A performance test is one which calls for a response by outward movements rather than by language, and which can ordinarily be presented to the child without the aid of verbal instructions. Such a test is the picture puzzle, or the mechanical puzzle. Tests of this sort are particularly desirable as supplements to the language type of test, and for use when language tests cannot be applied, as in the case of foreigners or deaf children. Besides presenting a standardization of 15 tests the authors enter into a very useful discussion of different kinds of scales and of interpretation of results.

[1] *A Point Scale for Measuring Mental Ability.* By R. M. Yerkes, J. W. Bridges, and Rose S. Hardwick. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1915. Pp. 218.

[2] *A Scale of Performance Tests.* By Rudolf Pintner and Donald G. Paterson. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1917. Pp. 218.

E. MANUALS OF EXPERIMENTAL EDUCATION

Two manuals specifically intended for classes in education have recently appeared.[1] Valentine's manual is the farthest advance which has thus far been made in adapting the *general* psychological experiments to the uses of education. It gives a series of 27 experiments, most of which are for the purpose of illustrating general psychological laws, and in the second part of the book presents a discussion of the bearing of these laws on education. The experiments are rather briefly described, but are for the most part simple, and require no apparatus. Freeman, on the other hand, has attempted to collect and present a series of a few experiments—16 in number—which call for more direct and elaborate study of educational problems as they appear in learning, in the school subjects, and in mental tests. Typical results of the experiments are given, together with more detailed directions for giving them, and considerable emphasis is laid on the requirements of a valid method of experimentation.

F. VOCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

The most comprehensive and well-balanced book on vocational psychology which has appeared is the recent book by Hollingworth.[2] It gives an account of the various kinds of attempts to diagnose or promote vocational fitness, with a more detailed and critical discussion of the modern psychological methods. The different kinds of vocational tests are described and their value compared. The author concludes that, for the present, the type of test which is of the most use is one which gives a rather general measure of the candidate's mental ability rather than of his particular, specialized strengths and weaknesses, except in the case of a few vocations, such as music. This, however, does not preclude the possibility of more specific diagnosis as our methods are refined.

[1] *An Introduction to Experimental Psychology in Relation to Education.* By C. W. Valentine. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1916. Pp. x+194; *Experimental Education, Laboratory Manual, and Typical Results.* By Frank N. Freeman. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 220.

[2] *Vocational Psychology.* By H. L. Hollingworth. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1916. Pp. 308.

II. COMMENT ON CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

A. NEW TEXTBOOKS FOR THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

1. *Composition and grammar.*—Two books have just come from the press that are distinctly helpful to the teaching of English composition and grammar in the elementary school—Hosic and Hooper's *A Child's Composition Book* and *A Composition Grammar.*[1] The former aims to organize, for pupils of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades, in a systematic continuous treatment, a variety of language experiences so as to avoid the purely formal treatment that has characterized the teaching of these subjects in the past. It is constructed on the doctrine that preparing to talk or to write is merely organizing all that one knows or can find out about the subject in question. It aids the teacher in a very definite way by systematically organizing a plan of work—carefully graded and adapted to the growing interests and abilities of children of the intermediate grades—in which children are caused to *talk* and *write* much because they are caused to *think* much. The effectiveness of these books is contributed to by the form and style of presentation—a form which makes use of excellent typographic devices for impressing important points on the mind, and a style which appeals directly and vitally to the intermediate pupils' interests and capacities. The technique of expression is also introduced in this book in such a way that children see that grammar is a science which they must *use*. The correctness of certain forms are taught only by having the children use them.

Hence, while this first book emphasizes composition as the systematic expression of a child's thoughts, it begins the study of grammar by the non-technical study of the sentence as a whole, drill in some of the verb-forms that children habitually misuse, exposition of the nature of subject, predicate, etc., together with practice in the recognition and use of them. The second book, *A Composition Grammar*, extends these discussions, avoids the puzzles of grammar, and gives attention only to those parts of the science which are most serviceable in composition. To secure this

[1] J. F. Hosic and C. L. Hooper. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1917. $0.50 and $0.60, respectively.

latter result the authors have employed many devices—example sentences accompanied by exposition, the writing of illustrative sentences, the study of quoted passages embodying principles that have been explained, the criticism of pupils' composition for the purpose of detecting and correcting errors, and writing in groups.

The reviewer feels that the authors have made a distinct contribution to the teaching of intermediate school English in these two books.

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2. *An important series of spellers.*—A careful study of American spellers shows three striking characteristics which tended to hamper the effective teaching of that subject and to lead to the "70 per cent efficiency" to which our schools have been committed—first, excessive length (more than 10,000 words are included in the typical speller, two-thirds of which never come into the writing vocabulary of an adult); second, lack of proper grading to fit a given stage of the developing child's vocabulary; third, lack of study of the learning process in spelling, with a view to emphasizing, not only the difficult words, but also the difficult parts of the words. (It has been shown recently that the important errors in spelling are very few, e.g., not one child in a thousand misspells as many as one hundred words, while nearly all children misspell some of the one hundred most difficult words.) During the past five years a dozen scientific investigations of just such problems have been reported by educationists. Active in this work have been Professors M. V. O'Shea and W. A. Cook, who published in 1914 *The Child and His Spelling*. They have now made available the results of their labor and of that of others by publishing a series of spellers.[1] In this series, which we regard as one of the most important ever published, there have been put together the results of careful scientific investigation of both the content and the teaching of spelling, and of detailed classroom methods of presentation and drill. The following important characteristics are outstanding in these books: (1) The spelling vocabulary is short and is made up of absolutely *minimal essentials;* 3,500 words are

[1] *The Everyday Speller.* By M. V. O'Shea, Florence Holbrook, and W. A. Cook. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1917. Four books.

included in contrast to the recent spellers of more than 10,000 words, and yet all the words found by the various investigators to be essential in the writing of adults are included. (2) The style and the typography of the book are such as to make the important and the difficult elements in spelling stand out. The pupil's eye is drawn to the crucial parts of words and he is given exercises designed to impress them upon his mind. (3) The grading of the words and the methods of presentation are made extremely helpful to teachers. Phonetic words are taught first, the vocabulary of the first and second grades being almost entirely phonetic.

We have no hesitation in commending this series of spellers to administrative officers and to teachers. It is one of the most scientifically constructed series of elementary textbooks and at the same time one that is practically helpful to the classroom teacher.

B. A TECHNICAL MONOGRAPH ON ARITHMETIC TESTS

Up to the present time the Courtis tests—Series A and B—have been the only means available to teachers for the measurement of results in arithmetic. In these tests certain weaknesses have been evident. It contributes to the importance of Dr. Counts's monograph[1] that he has both pointed out the weaknesses in the Courtis tests and, in collaboration with Mr. Courtis, designed and partially standardized a set of tests to fill in the gaps in these tests. His introductory statement is such a concise and complete summary of his investigation that we can do no better than quote as follows:

> In Chapter II it is shown that there is a need for a spiral test in the "fundamentals" of arithmetic to be used in diagnosing city, school, class, and individual weaknesses in the various operations included in the term "fundamentals." It is further pointed out that Series A and B of the Courtis standard tests are inadequate to meet this need. The test then, as developed, composed of 15 sets of different types of examples, is described and analyzed. This is followed by a statement concerning the collection of the data upon which the remainder of the study is based.
>
> The purpose of Chapter III is fivefold: (1) In order that the test may be of the greatest value educationally, it is necessary that standard attainments for

[1] George S. Counts, *Arithmetic Tests and Studies in the Psychology of Arithmetic* (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. I, No. 4, Whole No. 4). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1917. Pp. iv+127. Paper, $0.75.

children in the various grades in each of the 15 sets be determined. This is done on the basis of results from Cleveland and Grand Rapids. The validity of these results is discussed from the standpoint of the Courtis standard scores. (2) A system of weights is derived by which it is made possible to convert the scores made by a particular group or individual in the 15 different types of arithmetical operations into a single score to represent general arithmetical attainments of the individual or group. (3) The use of the test is discussed in detail, the method by which it may be employed to diagnose city, school, class, and individual weaknesses being shown. (4) Distributions of the scores made by groups of children in the typical operations are discussed for the purpose of indicating the different types of individual reaction to examples of varying degrees of complexity and for the purpose of pointing out certain differences in the responses made to the "fundamentals" and to fractions. (5) The degree of accuracy with which the various types of examples are worked is shown, accompanied by a comparison of the curve of accuracy and the curve of "rights" for one of the sets.

Chapter IV is a study of errors, in which the types of errors made by children in working the different kinds of examples are analyzed. It is of value to the teacher to know what sorts of errors she may expect from the pupil when the latter encounters the different arithmetical operations. The frequency of these errors is also determined, in order that the teacher may be able to apply the proper amount of emphasis at the various points of difficulty. Because of inability to isolate kinds of errors made in connection with some types of examples, since the study was confined to an examination of records made by pupils, this study is incomplete. It is necessary that it be supplemented by experimental data.

In Chapters V and VI the author conducts a study of age differences in Grades 3 to 8, inclusive, and a study of certain promotion groups for the purpose of discovering differences. In chapter IV he makes the same type of analysis looking for racial differences in arithmetical abilities.

Teachers of arithmetic will probably find the writer's discussion of types of errors in Chapter IV rather suggestive and helpful to their own practice. However, he merely classifies the errors with the relative frequency of each. It is to be regretted that the author does not enter into a real psychological discussion of the matter which will lead to remedial measures and to suggestions to teachers for specific treatment of the problems which he uncovers. The author's study could have been made much more valuable if it had also included classroom and laboratory analyses of particular arithmetical difficulties with individual pupils.

C. A SURVEY OF KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

Since 1911 more than fifty surveys of city school systems have been published. These survey reports have in the main discussed general conditions throughout the whole city system. We have had need, more recently, for detailed analyses of particular aspects of public-school work. In this connection we have had several important vocational- and industrial-education surveys, e.g., Minneapolis, Richmond, the Indiana state survey, etc. The school superintendent and principal, as well as the kindergartner and supervisor of kindergarten education, will therefore welcome Professor Temple's[1] report on *A Survey of the Kindergartens of Richmond, Indiana*. It is a carefully written, objective report which presents clearly the general situation with regard to kindergarten education in Richmond as well as the details of administration and teaching. It will be of great service to school men generally, because of its detailed discussion of methods of improving the administration of kindergarten work in that city. Best types of progressive practice are set forth in the chapters of this report after a constructive and impartial criticism of existing conditions. In Chapter I is given a tabular and descriptive sketch of the general situation in Richmond: the history of the kindergarten in that city, enrolment in kindergartens, age of admission and promotion, nationalities represented, methods of control. Chapter II takes up room-equipment: furniture, decorations, musical instruments, plants and animals, materials for play, and handwork. Not the least important contributions are the detailed suggestions and estimates for the equipment needed in a typical kindergarten. Chapter III discusses the teachers, their training and their experience, comparing these for kindergarten and primary teachers. It is shown clearly that the reconstruction of kindergarten practice makes summer study necessary, that Richmond needs more efficient kindergarten-primary supervision, that kindergartners spend too much time in preparing work for children. Specific suggestions are made for the better use of the teacher's time.

[1] *A Survey of the Kindergartens of Richmond, Indiana* (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. I, No. 6, Whole No. 6). By Alice Temple. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1917. Pp. v+58. Paper, $0.40.

Chapter IV develops the relation between the kindergarten and the fourth grade, shows that there should be continuity between the two, and establishes the dependence of children upon teachers in the kindergarten work. Chapter V analyzes the curriculum and methods of the kindergarten, presents a criticism of the organization of subject-matter, and shows present-day tendencies in the selection of subject-matter. This chapter gives a most detailed discussion of the content and methods of teaching each of the subjects in the kindergarten.

D. AN ELEMENTARY PSYCHOLOGY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL AND NORMAL-SCHOOL TRAINING CLASSES

It is incumbent upon the educational system that increasingly larger facilities for the training of elementary-school teachers in high-school normal-training classes be established. In our middle western states these training facilities are being established in a large way. The successful training of young prospective teachers must necessarily depend largely upon the effectiveness with which the professional courses are worked out. One of the great demands has been an elementary psychology, not too technical, for high-school and normal-school students, and, at the same time, one which would put in their hands the essence of present-day experimentation and thought upon the learning of children. Professor Pyle's new book[1] will therefore supply a long-felt need in this field. It is written for young students in high schools and normal schools. In its introductory chapter he tries to show the student what is meant by science, by scientific law, and then more specifically what is the science of psychology, and what are the problems of psychology and their applications in teaching. A fair criticism of this chapter is that the author has tried to tell too many things without a large enough amount of illustrative detail to make clear to immature minds the problems in question. In Chapters II to IX, inclusive, this mistake has been avoided, the principles and facts being presented in thoroughly non-technical

[1] *The Science of Human Nature.* By W. H. Pyle. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1917. Pp. vii+229.

language and so graded in presentation as to be very readable by the young student. He discusses in these successive chapters the biological basis of education, bringing in the results of such investigations in heredity as is represented by Mendelism, and trying to show the inherited foundation for child development and learning. In Chapter III he shows the dependence of mind on the body and takes this occasion to develop a very elemental discussion of the various sense organs and of typical kinds of sensory defects which are of importance to the teacher. His chapter on inherited tendencies gives to the young reader a rather good discussion of instincts and habits and of the significance of the emotional tendencies in the teaching problem. Chapter V shows how feeling and attention are related to inherited tendencies on the one side and to habits on the other. Chapter VI discusses quite at length the psychological and educational problems hinging around habit. The opportunity is taken to discuss learning and learning curves quite in detail. This chapter and the book in general are essentially practical and throughout relates very closely the psychological principles which are developed to their educational correlates. The succeeding chapters take up "memory," "thinking," "individual differences" (with which discussion a rather detailed presentation of mental tests is introduced), and finally a brief discussion of the applications of psychology. The last chapter, on applications, is open to the same criticism as is the first. It is too brief and covers too much field to leave the young student with a sound grasp of the problem. On the whole, the book should serve admirably the purpose of a textbook for high-school and normal-training classes in beginning psychology.

E. AN INTERPRETATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL VIEWS OF MODERN WRITERS

Present movements in education, emphasizing as they do the scientific aspect of our theory and practice, fail to take much account, for the time being, of the judgments of great thinkers of our past and present civilizations. Standing somewhat aloof from this present quantitative movement, which is aiming to construct an educational philosophy on a thoroughly factual and experi-

mental basis, are certain ones of our older educational leaders. Their attitude is not so much that of refusing to aid in the development of, or of making use of, sound technique for the improvement of school theory and practice, as it is one that is determined largely by the fear that education is "losing its human touch." President Thwing, of Western Reserve University, one of these leaders in educational philosophy, has just published a series of essays[1] in which he has collected and interpreted systematically the educational views of eight modern writers—men whose views on education have not been so presented before. These writers are Emerson, Carlyle, Ruskin, J. S. Mill, Gladstone, Mathew Arnold, Newman, and Goethe. Dr. Thwing has made a careful examination of the works of each of these writers, and in this volume has summarized in his own words the essentials of their educational doctrines, and has supplemented this summary by carefully selected quotations revealing in the masters' original writings themselves the essence of their views. The book will be appreciated for its continuity and systematic organization as well as for the excellent selection which has been made of the quoted material.

Four distinct aspects of the educational processes are emphasized by each of these great writers. To each of them education is, first, a *rational* process; second, although education is intellectual and rational, it is regarded as more important that it be interpreted and applied as *moral*. The author says:

> In an age rational the emphasis is put on a side of education other than rational. To educate the feelings is in the judgment of Mathew Arnold—a schoolmaster and the son of a schoolmaster—quite as important as the elevation of the intellect, and the lifting of both is the whole comprehensive aim and work of the whole educational service. . . . . "Real moral instruction in the public school," says Arnold, "would do more than all else in attaining the highest aims." But an emphasis on moral instruction necessarily leads to a thoroughgoing emphasis, third, upon *religion* as the "most potent of all educational forces." For these educationists the type is very general. It is devoid of creeds and of articles of specific faith. . . . . Reverence is the one religious virtue and grace of fundamental significance.

Finally, President Thwing has shown that education according to each of these masters should be made *personal*. "The peril is

[1] *Education According to Some Modern Masters*. By C. F. Thwing. New York: Platt & Peck Co., 1917. Pp. 296. $2.00.

that education will be a mould into which the melted metal of common humanity will be flung and from which the people shall come out bearing identical forms and a similar likeness."

III. CURRENT EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

(Detailed discussions of some of the following books will appear later.)

A Defence of Classical Education. By R. W. LIVINGSTONE. New York: Macmillan, 1916. Pp. 278. $1.40.

A clear statement of the ideals which, the author admits, have not often been realized.

How to Teach. By GEORGE DRAYTON STRAYER and NAOMI NORSWORTHY. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 297. $1.30.

A clear exposition of the process of teaching in terms of the new functional psychology. Very valuable.

English Composition. By CHESTER NOYES GREENOUGH and FRANK WILSON CHENEY HERSEY. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 373. $1.40.

The Harvard method to date.

American Literary Readings. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, Biographical Sketches, Some Thought Questions, an Outline of American Literature, and a Brief Essay on English Metrics, by LEONIDAS WARREN PAYNE, JR. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 647. $1.40.

Timely, and carefully done.

The Teaching of English in the Secondary School. By C. S. THOMAS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 365. $1.60.

Reflects an extensive experience in teaching.

Essays and Essay Writing. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by W. M. Tanner. BOSTON: Atlantic Monthly Co., 1917. Pp. 305. $0.85.

For advanced students specializing in the craft of writing.

Professionalism and Originality, with Some Suggestions for National Reconstruction. By F. H. HAYWARD. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co., 1917. Pp. 359. $1.75 net.

Distinctly iconoclastic. The author makes a new valuation of the professions as compared with other occupations.

Argumentation and Debating. Rev. ed. By WILLIAM TRUFANT FOSTER. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. 468. $1.40 net.

English Literature; An Introduction and Guide to the best English Books. By EDWIN L. MILLER. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1917. Pp. 597. $1.75 net.

By a book lover for book lovers.

Reveries of a Schoolmaster. By FRANCIS B. PEARSON. New York: Scribner, 1917. Pp. 203. $1.00.
Suggestive.

A Study of Virgil's Descriptions of Nature. By MABEL LOUISE ANDERSON. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1916. Pp. 224. $1.25 net.
A formal analysis.

Argumentation and Debate. By JAMES MILTON O'NEILL, CRAVEN LAYCOCK, and ROBERT LEIGHTON SCALES. New York: Macmillan, 1917. Pp. 495. $1.50.
A revision of Laycock and Scales by Professor O'Neill, with greater emphasis on theory.

The Old Grammar Schools. By FOSTER WATSON. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1916. Pp. 150. $0.45 net.
An important chapter in educational history.

Practical Grammar for High Schools and Academies. By P. H. DEFFENDALL. Chicago: Ainsworth & Co., 1917. Pp. 192. $0.64 net.
A brief treatise.

Learn to Spell. By L. W. PAYNE, JR. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1916. Pp. 144.
For high-school students.

The Scientific Measurement of Classroom Products. By J. CROSBY CHAPMAN and GRACE PREYER RUSH. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1917. Pp. 191. $1.25.
More popular in treatment than the similar work by Starch.

High School and College Textbooks. Descriptive catalogue with price list. Chicago: American Book Co., 1917.

The White Messenger and Other War Poems. By EDITH M. THOMAS. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1915. Pp. 91. $0.50 net.

Some Minor Poems of the Middle Ages. Selected and arranged with an Introduction by MARY G. SEGAR, and a Glossary by EMMELINE PAXTON. New York: Longmans, Green, & Co., 1917. Pp. 71. $1.00 net.

High Tide—Songs of Joy and Vision from the Present-Day Poets of America and Great Britain. Selected and arranged by MRS. WALDO RICHARDS. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. 206.

Our Gleaming Days. By DANIEL SARGENT. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1915. Pp. 64.
A book of poems.

Selections, Moral and Religious, from the Works of John Ruskin. By FREDERICK W. OSBORN. Boston: Richard G. Badger, 1917. Pp. 65. $1.00.

American Fiction: Past and Present. By HARRY HOUSTON PECKHAM and PAUL SIDWELL. For sale by the authors, Purdue University, La Fayette, Ind. $0.20 each. Special prices to schools and libraries, in quantities.

American Men of Letters: Their Nature and Nurture. By EDWIN LEAVITT CLARKE. ("Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law," Vol. XXVII No. 1.) New York: Columbia University.
A study of heredity.

Exercises in Derivation and Word Building and a Brief History of the English Language. Prepared for use in the West High School, Rochester, N.Y., 1916–17. Pp. 56. $0.15.

The Pronunciation of English. By W. A. CRAIGIE. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1917. Pp. 51. $0.60.

The Case Is Altered. By BEN JONSON. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Glossary, by WILLIAM EDWARD SELIN. (Yale Studies in English.) New Haven: Yale University. $2.00.

The Administration of Secondary-School Units. By LEONARD V. KOOS. (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. I, No. 3, July, 1917. Whole No. 3.) Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. $1.00, postage extra.

Types of Reading Ability as Exhibited through Tests and Laboratory Experiments. By CLARENCE TRUMAN GRAY. (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. I, No. 5, August 29, 1913. Whole No. 5.) Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1917. Pp. 196. $1.25, postage extra. Weight, 18 oz.

Arithmetic Tests and Studies in the Psychology of Arithmetic. By GEORGE S. COUNTS. (Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. I, No. 4, August 27, 1917. Whole No. 4.) Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1917. Pp. 127. $0.75, postage extra. Weight, 11 oz.

Oriental Diction and Theme in English Verse, 1740–1840. By EDNA OSBORNE. (Humanistic Studies, Vol. II, No. 1.) Bulletin of the University of Kansas, Lawrence.

A Guide to Literary Criticism. 2d ed. (thoroughly revised). By GLENN CLARK, Macalester College. Pp. 23.

Parliamentary Procedure. By ROLLO L. LYMAN and FRANK W. DIGNAN. Chicago: LaSalle Extension University, 1917. Pp. 30. $0.25.

Self-Cultivation in Extemporaneous Speaking. By GLENN CLARK. Macalester College. Pp. 20. $0.15.

Reading Reports. By SUSAN S. SHERIDAN. New Haven, Conn.: Whitlock's Book Store. Pp. 84. Single copy, $0.25; 100 or more at $0.22½ each; 500 or more at $0.20 each.